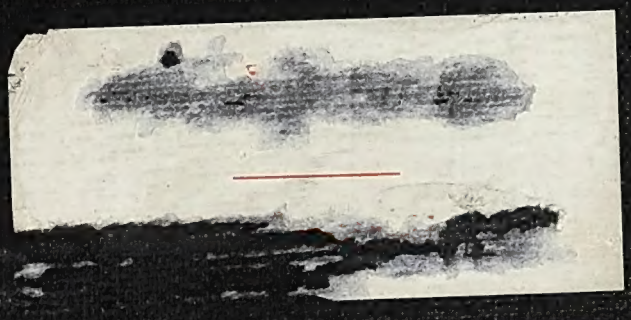

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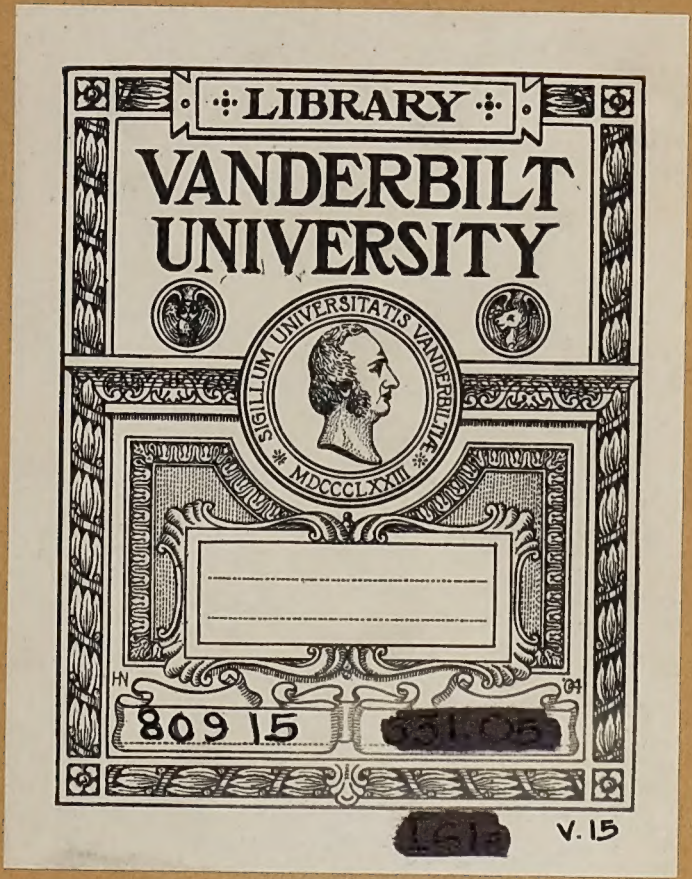

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INTERNATIONAL LABOUR REVIEW

VOL. XV. No. 1. JANUARY 1927

The Third International Conference of Labour Statisticians

THE chief difference between the conferences on labour statistics convened by the International Labour Office and other similar assemblies is that the persons attending the conferences are there in a double capacity : they act not merely as experts, but also as representatives of the governments which send them as delegates. The procedure for convening the conferences is that the International Labour Office invites the governments of the States Members of the International Labour Organisation to send suitable persons to attend the meetings. As a rule, therefore, the delegates to the conferences are the heads of the offices or departments which deal with the problems of labour statistics on the agenda. Moreover, it is their business to give practical effect to the decisions taken by the Conference with a view to standardising statistical methods ; this means that the considerations which govern the discussions and votes on the proposed draft resolutions are not solely theoretical, but that due weight must also be attached to the practicability of the decisions from the administrative, technical, and even financial points of view. Although it has frequently been explicitly emphasised that no government is in any way bound by the declarations of its representative or his vote to adapt its methods of collecting and compiling statistics to the decisions taken by the conference, yet the fact that the " labour statisticians "[1] at the conference take part in the discussions also as representatives of their governments affords a guarantee that the decisions taken will be kept strictly within practical limits. A further consequence of this fact is that the International Labour Office, whose duty it is to prepare the ground for the discussions, is compelled to obtain by careful investigation a clear idea of which methods are used most often and with the best results, and which proposals for reform can be expected to win the approval of the assembled experts. At these joint discussions the practical advantages and disadvantages of the various methods are then carefully weighed

[1] Cf. *International Labour Review*, Vol. XIV, No. 4., Oct. 1926, pp. 476-488 : " The Scope of Labour Statistics ", by Dr. Karl PRIBRAM.

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in every detail, and if it is found that the different requirements of national statistics have to be taken into account, the resolution will provide a formula which at least does not exclude a choice between several methods.

Like its two predecessors[1], the third International Conference of Labour Statisticians, which was held at Geneva from 18 to 23 October 1926, bore witness to a spirit of sincere international understanding. At the opening session the Director of the International Labour Office welcomed the representatives of twenty-six governments, noting that the numbers were almost the same as on the previous occasion. He summarised the practical results already obtained from the attempt of the International Labour Office to standardise the methods of labour statistics on international lines, and drew attention to the importance of these statistics for the fulfilment of the tasks of the Office. The Conference elected as President Mr. Hilton, Director of Statistics in the British Ministry of Labour, who in his opening speech suggested that the beneficial results of the Conference might be grouped under four heads. In the first place, the technical reports prepared by the Statistical Section of the International Labour Office were of great value and in themselves likely to lead to the improvement of national statistics. A second important point was that the Conference brought into personal contact the statisticians of different countries. Thirdly, the resolutions adopted by the conferences embodied the greatest common measure of opinion on the most effective methods which, while aiming at the international comparability of the statistics, should not distort or enfeeble them for particular national purposes. Finally, the reports of the conferences provided an incentive for the governments to interest themselves in improving the quality of their statistics and, if possible, adapting them to international requirements.

Professor Gini, President of the Italian National Statistical Institute, Professor Wagemann, President of the German Federal Statistical Office, and Mr. Mayeda, Chief of the Japanese Delegation to the International Labour Office, were elected vice-presidents. So far as the texts of the resolutions are concerned the plenary sessions were of comparatively little importance. A special small committee was appointed for only one of the items on the agenda — the classification of industries. The procedure adopted for the

[1] For accounts of the first and second Conferences, cf. *International Labour Review*, Vol. IX, No. 1, Jan. 1924, pp. 3-30, and Vol. XII, No. 1, July 1925, pp. 1-22; also Studies and Reports, Series N (Statistics), Nos. 4 and 8.

other items — methods of family budget enquiries, statistics of collective agreements, statistics of industrial disputes — was that all the members of the Conference sat on each of the committees. Apart from one minor alteration, the reports of the committees were adopted at the closing session without further discussion.

The selection of the subjects on the agenda was determined partly by the decisions of the previous conferences. The discussion on the classification of industries was a continuation of previous debates on this subject; the methods of family budget enquiries were placed on the agenda because the second Conference had adopted a resolution inviting the governments to undertake such enquiries with a view to obtaining a reliable basis for determining the consumption of workers' families and using the weights thus obtained for the calculation of new series of cost-of-living index numbers. The two remaining items on the agenda, statistics of collective agreements and statistics of industrial disputes, both relate to branches of labour statistics which, though important, are by no means compiled on uniform principles, so that an international standardisation of the methods used is urgently desirable in the interests of comparability.

From the following account of the proceedings of the Conference it will be seen that many interesting problems were also examined, often surpassing in significance the particular branch of statistics that was the immediate cause of their discussion.

Methods of Family Budget Enquiries

Among the various possible methods of determining the standard of living of a community, first place should undoubtedly be given to the enquiries which aim at obtaining as exact an idea as possible of the income and consumption of members of that community by carefully recording and collecting the household accounts of properly selected families, and critically examining the results. In a report submitted to the Conference[1] the International Labour Office had undertaken a comparative survey of enquiries of this kind conducted in different countries since the beginning of the present century, with reference to the methods used, indicating the chief problems raised by the collection of data and the analysis of the individual

[1] *Methods of Conducting Family Budget Enquiries.* Studies and Reports, Series N (Statistics), No. 9. Geneva, 1926.

budgets with a view to obtaining as uniform a measure as possible of the standard of living. In accordance with this study the Office submitted to the Conference a draft resolution, which divided the enquiries into two groups : the first, those which aim at determining the main factors in the standard of living, and the second, those which are merely intended to determine the proportions in which the income is expended on the different groups, so as to provide weights for the calculation of index numbers of the cost of living. For enquiries of the second type the draft proposed an abbreviated form of procedure, confined mainly to information on the composition of the household and its consumption. The methods to be adopted in the more circumstantial enquiries were also discussed in all necessary detail.

The most important problems of general methods were described in a few introductory remarks by the Chairman of the Committee, Mr. Julin, Secretary General of the Belgian Ministry of Industry, Labour, and Social Welfare, and the discussion was opened by the Technical Secretary of the Committee, Mr. Richardson, of the International Labour Office. The first point of decisive importance is whether the so-called intensive method should be preferred to the extensive method. The former aims at obtaining as detailed a record as possible of income and consumption for a limited number of families over as long a period as possible (a year). The latter, on the other hand, aims at including as many families as possible in the enquiry, but limits the record to a few weeks. Several members of the Committee expressed themselves in favour of the intensive method, in particular Mr. van Dam van Isselt (Netherlands) and Mr. Mayeda (Japan) ; the latter supplied some interesting information on an enquiry at present in progress in Japan among over 7,000 households. Professor Wagemann (Germany), on the contrary, considered the two methods equally justified, each having its own advantages and disadvantages.

A second fundamental problem which was raised in the introductory discussion is the choice of the method to be adopted for reducing to terms of a common unit the consumption of families of different sizes and different composition. There is an extraordinary variety in the scales adopted for this purpose. Often, scales which merely allow for differences in the consumption of food in accordance with age and sex are used indiscriminately for all consumption groups, although it is evident that, for instance, the proportion adopted for the food consumption of a three-year-

old child (e.g. one-sixth of the consumption of an adult man) cannot simply be used also for the child's consumption of clothing and rent. A comparison of the consumption of different families is further hampered by the circumstance that many families live in their own houses and therefore pay no rent, that they board and lodge other persons, keep servants, etc. Mr. Jensen (Denmark) raised the difficult question of how far the budgets of families who are able and willing to keep regular and reliable accounts of their income and expenditure are sufficiently representative, as this form of account-keeping assumes an unusually high level of intelligence and thrift. He considered that the method of sampling was quite unusable here. Mr. Hilton (Great Britain) drew attention to the particular case in which the representative character of the enquiry is adversely affected by the large number of unemployed persons included. If the results of an enquiry are to be used for adjusting wages to the cost of living, it would be better for the households from which the consumption data are derived to include only the normal unemployment proportion (4 per cent.) of households in which the head of the family is unemployed.

The special debate followed the draft resolution submitted by the International Labour Office. The first question discussed was the definition of the " family ". Mr. Mayeda (Japan) and Professor Gini (Italy) considered that families of only two persons should also be taken into account, and Professor Wagemann (Germany) that even the accounts of single persons should be included. These views were opposed by Mr. Hilton (Great Britain) in particular. Finally, on the suggestion of Mr. Huber (France), it was agreed that the person responsible for conducting the enquiry should be free to decide which families are to be considered characteristic of the population group covered. The much discussed question, to which reference has already been made, of whether the extensive or the intensive method was preferable was decided by the Committee in the sense of the draft resolution, to the effect that it is above all desirable to cover as many families as possible, even though this may interfere with the determination of a number of details. In view of the great difficulties involved in obtaining an adequate number of conscientious reports covering a whole year, it was finally agreed, after detailed discussion, that although this method should undoubtedly be given the preference, as it alone can offer complete and fully comparable results, yet for the determination of current expenditure it is sufficient if the enquiry covers four weeks in all : either one week in each quarter, or two fortnights in different

seasons of the year. For expenditure which occurs at irregular intervals supplementary annual accounts would be needed or records on which to estimate annual expenditure.

On the other hand, the Committee did not succeed in arriving at a complete settlement of the other question of cardinal importance already referred to, namely, the methods to be used for reducing to terms of a common unit (e.g. the consumption of an adult man) the consumption of the members of the family of different age and sex. The draft resolution had proposed that one scale should be chosen for the consumption of food and another for all the other consumption groups. Although this idea is not altogether free from theoretical objections, it is to be recommended on account of its simplicity, and was accordingly approved by the Committee. But the Committee refrained from adopting specific scales, because differences in national customs and in the age at which maturity is reached make it difficult to establish an internationally acceptable schedule. Several speakers, in particular Dr. Bergsten (Sweden) and Dr. Klezl (Austria), expressed their regret that hitherto this important problem had been discussed too much on theoretical lines, without adequate attention to practical experience. They therefore urged that in the different countries special enquiries should be conducted with a view to determining suitable scales, the results of which might be worked up by the International Labour Office in a comparative study. Considerable interest was aroused by the proposal of the Finnish delegate, Dr. Harmaja, that for the principle classes of food the nutritive value should be determined by the cost of a thousand calories. As Mr. Huber (France) added, such an enquiry might give housewives useful practical hints on the choice of the most nutritive foods. Mr. Mayeda (Japan) stated that for the Japanese enquiry the nutritive value of the more important foods was being considered, with reference also to their quality.

As already explained, the second part of the draft resolution dealt with the simplified procedure to be used for enquiries intended solely to provide weights for the calculation of cost-of-living index numbers[1]. In order to determine what proportion of the total expenditure of the family is devoted to each of the articles and each of the consumption groups included in the calculation of the index number, it is sufficient to obtain data of expenditure only; for it is one of the conditions of the calculation of index numbers

[1] In this case it is unnecessary to determine also the quantities consumed.

that there shall be no change in the selected quantities during the whole period covered. The Committee nevertheless considered it desirable that the quantities consumed should be stated also for these simplified enquiries.

It may be expected that the principles approved by the Conference will serve as a guide for the enquiries contemplated by many governments.

Statistics of Collective Agreements

With the growing strength of labour organisations collective agreements for determining conditions of employment have become exceedingly important. In practically all countries there has been a steady increase in the number of these agreements, in spite of the noteworthy tendency to extend the scope of separate agreements as much as possible and to replace strictly local agreements by others, more comprehensive and sometimes covering the whole country. A statistical survey of collective agreements must however meet with certain difficulties. Unlike statistics of wages, industrial accidents, unemployment, etc., which deal with individual phenomena, these statistics relate to phenomena in which the will of a group plays a decisive part. Moreover, collective agreements are in themselves legal instruments, and as a rule they cannot be dealt with statistically with complete success unless provision is made for their official registration. In the absence of registration completeness must be secured by other means. It is by no means sufficient to regard merely the purely numerical factors which can be obtained directly from an analysis of the agreements; for the latter are at the same time social phenomena, the importance of which cannot be properly appreciated if only the separate clauses are taken into account. A statistical determination of that importance is to be obtained rather by examining the parties to the agreement, their strength, the area covered by the agreement, the number of undertakings and workers to whom it applies, and, finally, the procedure by which it was concluded. Moreover, it will not be enough for the statistics to examine the agreements in force on an arbitrary date. An attempt must also be made to indicate the changes over a longer period as shown by the conclusion, amendment, and termination of agreements. In view of the social importance of collective agreements it is inadvisable to adopt the legal definition of the term — which in any case varies in detail

from one country to another — for statistical purposes without further consideration. On the contrary, the statistics of collective agreements must define the term independently, if the object is to secure international comparability. Finally, in so far as collective agreements contain information on the regulation of conditions of employment (wage rates, hours, holidays with pay, etc.), it is preferable to deal with such provisions under the various other branches of labour statistics, as collective agreements are not the only source of such information.

These observations on the fundamental principles, summarising the report on statistics of collective agreements published by the Office[1], were put forward by the Technical Secretary of the Committee, Dr. Pribram, in submitting the draft resolution prepared by the International Labour Office. A lively discussion immediately took place on the question whether collective agreements could in general be regarded as a suitable subject for statistical treatment. Mr. Hilton, the representative of the British Government, who raised the question, was definitely of the opinion that they could not. He maintained that a collective agreement could by no means be regarded as a unit in the statistical sense, for it contained a variety of clauses which might possibly apply to different groups of workers. It was also difficult to estimate the importance of a collective agreement, for the number of establishments covered meant very little, while it was difficult to ascertain the number of workers affected. Any attempt to summarise th various agreements ran the risk of bringing together entirely dissimilar things, for many regulate conditions of employment in detail, while others contain merely individual arrangements of quite secondary importance. The Statistics Division of the British Ministry of Labour was at present engaged in preparing a survey of the principal industrial agreements in Great Britain, but this report would not include a simple statistical table, as the material was not considered at all suitable for this purpose. The only appropriate treatment was the descriptive method. For these reasons he urged the Conference to reject the application of statistical methods to collective agreements. Mr. Jensen (Denmark) was also of the opinion that the question had not yet been adequately examined. He suggested that the Conference should confine itself to a general discussion of the problem and refrain altogether

[1] *Methods of Statistics of Collective Agreements.* Studies and Reports, Series N (Statistics), No 11. Geneva, 1926.

from considering the draft resolution ; a point of view which was supported by Mr. Labriola (Italy).

An entirely contrary view was taken by Dr. Bergsten (Sweden), who described the resolution proposed by the Office as a minimum programme. He considered that the statistics of collective agreements should also give information on all the details for the settlement of conditions of employment contained in the agreements, as such particulars were neglected by the other branches of labour statistics. The representatives of the other States in which collective agreements are subject to detailed statistical treatment (Czechoslovakia, Germany, the Netherlands, Norway) were also strongly opposed to the suggestion of the British delegate. The Technical Secretary of the Committee sought to refute the arguments produced in favour of that suggestion. He agreed that the descriptive method was suited for dealing with those complex problems which, like collective agreements, were influenced by the will of a group, but this did not exclude the use of statistical methods as well. The statistical unit was the agreement, which, in a written form, embodied a compromise of wills ; due allowance could be made for the differing importance of agreements by proper classification and grouping. On the other hand, it would be going too far if, as Dr. Bergsten and some other speakers wished, the statistics of collective agreements were also required to deal with the actual contents.

Finally, a compromise proposed by Mr. Hilton was adopted. The resolution begins by giving expression to the general wish that information on collective agreements should be collected and published in a summary form, and urges that any statistics compiled on the basis of this information should be compiled in accordance with the principles laid down in the resolution. No serious difficulty was met with in agreeing on these principles. The statistical definition of a collective agreement which was adopted accepts workers' organisations of any kind as one party to the agreement, even if they have no legal personality ; it is however stipulated that the agreement must be in writing. The record of agreements should indicate the changes in their number during a specified period of some duration. The importance of each separate collective agreement is to be measured by the number of establishments covered, the number of workers employed in them, and the number of workers whose conditions of employment are governed by the agreement ; for it often happens that a collective agreement applies only to specified groups of workers in an undertaking. In any

event, the measurement of the importance of a collective agreement should start from the establishments covered, and not the organisations concluding the agreement. The relative importance of agreements may be measured by the ratio of the number of workers covered to the total number of workers in the industry in question.

Collective agreements should be classified according to their principal legal and social characteristics. The legal criteria include the nature of the contracting parties, the territorial scope of the agreement, the subjects dealt with (regulation of conditions of employment on the one hand, and general matters relative to employment on the other), and the period of validity of the agreement. The social criteria include the method of conclusion of the agreement (as a consequence of peaceful negotiations, or of an industrial dispute), the classification of the establishments by industries, and the importance of the agreements (which, as already stated, is to be measured by the number of establishments and workers covered). Several details of statistical treatment cannot however be governed by general principles, but must be decided after careful consideration in each individual case.

Statistics of Industrial Disputes

An attempt at international comparison of statistics of industrial disputes was made by the International Statistical Institute; this was followed by the report submitted to the Conference by the International Labour Office, on the problems of method arising out of the treatment of this interesting social phenomenon[1]. These problems may be considered from various points of view: as a symptom of the tension and friction between social groups, which are in part the outcome of cyclical economic fluctuations; as a source of national economic losses, which are capable of measurement; as an economic risk. This last consideration, in particular, leads to a systematic co-ordination of many important problems, for it demands the calculation of the frequency of disputes and the magnitude of their results. It is thus not only the number of disputes that must be determined, but also the number of establishments affected, the number of workers involved, the number of working days lost owing to the dispute, and finally, perhaps also the total resulting loss in wages. Regarded as a social phenomenon,

[1] *Methods of Compiling Statistics of Industrial Disputes.* Studies and Reports, Series N (Statistics), No. 10. Geneva, 1926.

disputes may be handled statistically if they are classified by the matter in dispute, the results, the method of settlement, and the industries affected. These various considerations lead to an interesting and logically complete programme for the international treatment of this branch of statistics, a programme which was submitted to the Committee by its Technical Secretary, Mr. Voïonmaa, and was also the basis of the draft resolution prepared by the Office.

Two questions were discussed first of all; the definition of an industrial dispute, and the distinction between strikes and lockouts. Two delegates, Mr. Unsain (Argentina) and Mr. Cook (Great Britain), demanded that the statistics should be limited to disputes concerning matters relating to employment, thus excluding political disputes. Various objections were raised to this proposal. Dr. Klezl (Austria) pointed out that any dispute, whatever its cause, has economic consequences and should therefore be taken into account in determining the extent of these consequences. Dr. Riddell (Canada) remarked that it was often very difficult to distinguish between disputes according to their motives. This argument was supported by Mr. Hilton on the ground that the more a government is prepared to negotiate between the parties, the more political the dispute tends to become, as had been clearly shown by the great coal-mining dispute. After much discussion the definition proposed by the International Labour Office was ultimately adopted. It defines an industrial dispute as a temporary stoppage of work wilfully effected by a group of workers or by one or more employers with a view to enforcing a demand. This definition makes no distinction between the motives of the dispute or the nature of the demands; but, as was made clear by the discussion, it excludes both passive resistance or " ca' canny ", and also the limitation of production as a weapon in the struggle between manufacturers and the buyers of their products. It is further laid down that disputes affecting several establishments are to be considered as one case if they are organised or directed by one person or organisation.

A question which aroused much greater controversy was whether or not statistics should make a distinction between strikes and lockouts. The Office had regarded this distinction as non-essential: the statistician was therefore not called on to make so delicate a decision as the fixing of the responsibility for the stoppage of work in each particular case, this being the real meaning of the distinction between a strike and a lockout. Many speakers were opposed to this view. Mr. van Dam van Isselt (Netherlands) maintained that

the question of which party had ordered the stoppage of work might be determined on objective grounds, and was quite distinct from the, in actual fact, delicate question of which party was the cause of the dispute. Dr. Klezl (Austria) drew attention to the interesting connection between economic fluctuations and industrial disputes ; these fluctuations had the opposite effect on the frequency of strikes to that on the frequency of lockouts, and it was important to examine the connection from the statistical standpoint. There was also a demand for a separate record of the two kinds of disputes, in particular by the workers' organisations. In view of the experience gained in Germany, Dr. von Valta stated that there could be no objection to the distinction if the criterion adopted were the decision of either party to break off or refuse negotiations, and if the reports on disputes were drawn up by impartial institutions such as the employment exchanges or the factory inspectorate. Similar views were expressed by Mr. Julin (Belgium) and Professor Limanowski (Poland). Mr. Bergsten (Sweden) proposed to distinguish a third group of disputes, those of a mixed nature, in order to provide for disputes which could not be classified in one of the other two groups without forcing the point. The Office view, that it would be preferable to make no distinction, was supported by the British representatives, Mr. Hilton and Mr. Cook, as well as by the Irish representative, Mr. Lyon, and the Canadian delegate, Dr. Riddell. Mr. Hilton, in particular, maintained that it was often a political question whether a dispute should be classified in the statistics as a strike or a lockout. Statistics could throw little light on the connection between economic fluctuations and the two types of dispute : when prices rose it was found that all disputes tended to be strikes, as they were based on the demand for higher wages ; when prices were falling, on the contrary, employers were anxious to reduce wages, and this led to lockouts if the workers resisted. Mr. Voïonmaa, the representative of the International Labour Office, added that if the connection between economic fluctuations and industrial disputes were to be fully elucidated, there should be a distinction between offensive and defensive strikes ; the latter distinction is already drawn in the statistics of certain countries, and some countries also provide for the separate group of mixed disputes. These complications show the difficulty of making a classification which shall be free from all objection. Although many governments may wish to continue classifying disputes on these lines, chiefly at the demand of the parties, this is not sufficient reason for regarding the classification as essential for international

purposes, especially as the various countries adopt quite different principles in deciding doubtful cases. When the vote was taken, however, Dr. Klezl's suggestion in favour of recommending a distinction between strikes and lockouts was adopted.

Among the other decisions of the Committee, reference should be made to the following. The statistics should relate to the disputes in existence in the period under review. The importance of the dispute is to be measured by four factors — the number of establishments affected by the dispute, the number of workers involved, the duration of the dispute, and the number of man-days lost on account of the dispute. An amendment proposed by Mr. Lyon (Irish Free State) in favour of distinguishing between the workers directly and indirectly involved was rejected. The " establishment " is taken to be the " technical unit " as defined in censuses of industries. The number of workers involved is to be calculated by taking the average number of vacancies caused in the establishments affected by the dispute. The duration of the dispute is to be measured from the date on which it began in the first establishment affected to the date on which it ended in the last one. The number of man-days lost is to be measured by the sum of the numbers of vacancies on each day of the dispute. Thus the importance of the dispute is throughout determined on the basis of the establishment.

In classifying disputes the first factor to be taken into account is the matter in dispute. After much discussion the proposal of the Office was adopted that in principle all disputes related to collective bargaining should be separated from the rest. Within the second group sympathetic and political disputes should be classified separately. In accordance with a proposal put forward by Dr. Riddell (Canada), a special subdivision in the first group was made for disputes connected solely with trade unionism ; a second subdivision, covering disputes on conditions of employment, was further divided according to the chief matter in dispute (wages, hours, engagement or dismissal of workers), on the lines of a suggestion made by Mr. van Dam van Isselt. From the point of view of results, disputes are classified in two main groups, as proposed by Mr. Julin (Belgium), according as the demands of the workers or the employers respectively are accepted. The value of this classification was however questioned by Mr. Jensen (Denmark). The classification of disputes by the method of settlement separates those settled by direct negotiations between the parties from those settled by the intervention

of a third party; in the latter case a distinction must be made between disputes in which the award is accepted voluntarily by the parties, and those in which it is compulsory. The disputes should further be classified by the chief industrial groups. Finally, in accordance with the factor adopted for measuring their importance, they must be classified by the number of establishments affected, the number of workers involved, the duration of the dispute, and the number of man-days lost. It was decided that the classification of disputes by the amount of wages lost should be left to the domain of national statistics. The method of calculating the frequency and the severity of disputes, or, in other words, the economic risk involved, is to be based on the number of full-time workers during the period covered by the report.

Finally, on the question of the length of the period, the Committee decided that annual reports were sufficient. At its plenary session the Conference amended this decision and adopted the proposal of Dr. Harmaja (Finland) that the publication of simpler monthly reports should also be recommended. This was the only occasion on which the resolutions adopted by the Committees were amended by the plenary session of the Conference.

The Classification of Industries

This question has been discussed in detail by both the earlier Conferences of Labour Statisticians. It had not proved too difficult to agree on a general classification of industries by the main groups which, with comparatively slight differences, are distinguished in all industrial censuses. But when it was desired to draw up a uniform and internationally acceptable schedule for the manufacturing trades and industries, the difficulties were found to be almost insurmountable, owing to the absence of a logically sound principle of classification, and to the fact that the statistics of the different countries employ several criteria (the material worked, the process, the finished product) in various combinations which are not always entirely free from objection[1]. As the best provisional way out of these difficulties it was finally decided that only a list of the more important industries should be drawn

[1] Cf. the report on the second International Conference of Labour Statisticians in *International Labour Review*, Vol. XIII, No. 1, July 1925, pp. 9 *et seq.*; and Studies and Reports, Series N, No. 8, pp. 40 *etseq.*

up. The International Labour Office had carried out this decision by preparing a comparative table on the basis of the industrial records of the eight States represented on the Governing Body of the Office on the ground of their industrial importance. This table covered all the industries which may be considered as the most important in these States in view of the number of workers employed. It placed the industries in three groups : the first contained those which cover much the same field in the classifications of the various countries, so that they offer no serious obstacle to international comparisons ; the second group contained the branches of industry which may be made comparable by slight modifications in the existing lists ; the third covered the remaining industries, which are so differently defined in the national schemes that standardisation can be achieved only if several countries agree to far-reaching modifications.

This table was submitted to a small Committee of the Conference, which tried first of all to determine how far the procedure adopted by the International Labour Office, of examining the comparability of existing classifications, achieved its purpose. Mr. Hilton (Great Britain) and Mr. Loveday (representative of the League of Nations) approved the principle, but demanded that the investigation should be extended in two directions : it should also cover the classifications of the other States, and should be made more accurate by an exact definition of the scope of the individual industrial groups within the national schedule, if need be by indicating the products or working processes. This was the only way in which a really reliable basis for international comparisons and for drawing up a uniform scheme of classification could be obtained. Mr. Huber (France) opposed this view, reminding the Committee that the decisions of the second Conference of Labour Statisticians merely proposed the drafting of a list of the most important industries, to which the governments might adjust their classification schedules without fundamental change by subdividing the more important industrial groups on corresponding lines. There was at present no question of producing a uniform and internationally acceptable schedule. A third view was put forward by Dr. Nyström (Sweden) and Dr. Klezl (Austria). They demanded that specific principles should be drawn up for the classification, and in particular that the difference between large and small industries should be taken as a fundamental distinction. Mr. Lyon (Irish Free State) was also of the opinion that a uniform schedule was essential. Although

the justice of this demand was fully recognised, the majority of the Committee was convinced that it was too early to try to carry it into effect. It was finally agreed that the International Labour Office should be requested to continue the comparative survey of existing classifications that it had begun, and in particular that, with the assistance of the governments, it should define clearly the contents of the industrial groups in each national list. In collaboration with the Secretariat of the League of Nations and the International Statistical Institute an attempt should then be made to compare the existing classifications and to adapt them by degrees to a uniform schedule.

Conclusion

Taken together with the decisions adopted by the two earlier Conferences of Labour Statisticians, the decisions of this third Conference constitute a serious and systematic attempt to create a basis for uniform international methods of compiling the chief branches of labour statistics. It was therefore quite in order for Professor Gini, the President of the new Italian Statistical Institute, to raise the question of what practical results had so far been obtained from these efforts of the International Labour Office. He was of opinion that only very few governments had considered themselves bound to adapt their statistical methods to international requirements. The chief reason for this was that the process of adjustment was hindered by administrative, financial, and even psychological factors, although the scientific value of the principles recommended by the Conferences was unquestioned. He therefore proposed a different procedure for the preparation of these Conferences. Before a subject was placed on the agenda the governments should be asked what programme they considered immediately feasible. Mr. Maurette, replying to this suggestion on behalf of the International Labour Office during the closing session of the Conference, expressed the fear that the adoption of such a system would expose the drafting of a suitable agenda to difficulty and delay.

It is of course useless to blind one's eyes to the fact that, in spite of the readiness of labour statisticians to work together for the improvement and perfection of their methods, yet progress towards uniformity of official statistics can only be very slow; but this is no adequate reason for over-anxiety and for avoiding

the choice of an otherwise suitable subject for discussion because some government or other believes that it will not be able to carry out proposals for reform within a reasonable period. For it is of primary importance that the principles on which labour statistics are to be based should be co-ordinated by degrees in a logically sound and complete system. Rightly understood, the idea of uniformity of labour statistics does not mean merely that in each branch of statistics the same methods should be adopted everywhere, but rather that in addition certain general principles should be equally observed for all branches. This demand gains added force from the fact that often the various branches of labour statistics are not compiled in the same office or department, and that, as is shown over and over again by the discussions on the classification of industries, there are numerous links between labour statistics and other branches of official statistics. In the choice of the agenda for the Conferences of Labour Statisticians equal consideration should therefore, as far as possible, be given to the claims of all branches of labour statistics.

APPENDIX

Resolutions Adopted by the Conference

I. Methods of Family Budget Enquiries

(1) In order to provide adequate information with regard to actual standards of living, enquiries should be conducted at intervals generally of not more than ten years into the income, expenditure, and conditions of living of families representative of large homogeneous sections of the population.

The families should be selected to include a sufficient number from different income classes within the sections of the population under consideration, and also from different industries and districts. It is preferable to ask for less detailed information rather than to reduce the number of families covered by the enquiry.

(2) In order that the results of the enquiries may be as complete and comparable as possible, information should be based on daily records of income and expenditure kept by a member of the family for a period of twelve months.

Where it would be impracticable to obtain annual records, every effort should be made to secure from as large a number of families as possible budgets covering at least four periods of not less than a week, one in each quarter, or two periods of at least a fortnight in different

seasons of the year. These records would supply adequate information regarding items of expenditure which recur daily. In the case of items of income and expenditure (clothing, furniture, etc.) which recur only at considerable intervals, annual records kept by a smaller number of families or information on which annual estimates could be based should be sufficient.

Special forms or account books should be distributed to the families for their use in making these records of income and expenditure. It is desirable that competent persons should be appointed to visit the families during the course of the enquiry and advise them regarding the keeping of the records.

(3) The records should show the district in which the family resides, the industry and occupation to which members of the family who are gainfully occupied belong, and the composition of the household, including the sex of each member and the age of juvenile members. They should show in sufficient detail the nature of the housing accommodation.

Information should be given for each important item of income and expenditure. By income should be understood earnings in money and kind, sums received from boarders and lodgers, from insurance funds, pensions, and investments, together with income from allotments or in the form of gifts. The chief items of income and expenditure should be specified on the forms, or account books, distributed. In the case of items of expenditure, the quantity purchased, as well as the cost, should be recorded wherever practicable. Where a family includes boarders, lodgers, or domestic servants, information should be given to show the proportion they represent in the family consumption. In the calculation of expenditure, the cost of maintenance of domestic servants should be added to their money wages.

(4) In compiling the results of an enquiry, if the number of budgets secured is adequate, separate averages should be given for important districts and industries. Families of manual and non-manual workers should be shown separately. Averages calculated for different income groups should be shown.

In addition to averages per family and for families classified according to size, the data expressed in terms of some more precise unit of consumption, for example the consumption of an adult male, should be given. For reducing data for families of different size to terms of a common unit, it is desirable, where suitable scales showing the relative consumption of persons of different age and sex are available, to apply one scale to food commodities and a second scale to other items.

The tabulated results should show the average income from different sources, and the quantity of and expenditure on each of the chief commodities consumed. Separate information should be given for each item of income and of expenditure which constitutes on the average not less than 1 per cent. of total income or expenditure. Other items of interest may be shown separately as desired. The items of expenditure should be classified into the following groups : food, clothing, housing accommodation, fuel and light, furniture and furnishings, and miscellaneous. It is desirable that payments of direct taxation should be given as a separate item. It is also desirable to determine the nutritive value of the principal articles of food together with the cost of a thousand calories of each commodity.

Where the sole object of an enquiry is to provide weights for the calculation of cost-of-living index numbers, satisfactory results may be obtained from a less detailed investigation than that indicated above.

Information regarding district, industry, composition of family, and expenditure upon each of the several items to be included in the index numbers only is necessary. It is desirable, however, to have, in addition, information as to quantities.

The results will be tabulated to meet the requirements of the series of cost-of-living index numbers which it is proposed to publish in each country. Thus if separate series of cost-of-living index numbers are to be published for a number of districts or categories of workers, the results of the family budget enquiries will be tabulated separately for each district or category; if a single national index is to be calculated, the results may be shown in the form of general averages only.

II. Statistics of Collective Agreements

In each country information concerning collective agreements and their principal contents should be collected and published in a summary form at appropriate intervals.

It is desirable that any statistics compiled on the basis of this information should be compiled in accordance with the following general principles:

(1) The collective agreement should be defined, for the purposes of the statistics, as a written agreement concluded between one or more employers or an employers' organisation on the one hand, and one or more workers' organisations of any kind on the other, with a view to determining the conditions of individual employment, and in certain cases to the regulation of other questions relative to employment.

(2) The number of collective agreements should be recorded at annual intervals according to the following scheme:

(*a*) number of agreements in force at the beginning of the period of registration;

(*b*) number of agreements concluded during the period of registration;

(*c*) number of agreements expired within the period of registration;

(*d*) number of agreements in force at the end of the period of registration.

(3) The importance of each collective agreement should be measured by ascertaining the numerical strength of the contracting parties, i.e. the number of establishments covered, the total number of workers employed in these establishments, and the number of workers covered by each agreement.

The extent to which workers are covered by collective agreements should be indicated by calculating the number of workers covered by agreements as a percentage of the total number of workers in the various industries.

(4) The collective agreements, together with the number of establishments and of workers covered, should be classified according to their principal legal and social characteristics on the following lines:

A. *Nature of contracting parties.* The agreements should be classified according to the nature of the contracting parties as follows:

(*a*) agreements concluded between an employer and his workers;

(*b*) agreements concluded between one or more employers, and one or more workers' organisations;

(*c*) agreements concluded between employers' organisations and workers' organisations.

B. *Scope of application.* The agreements should be classified according to the extent of the area in which they are applicable, as follows :

(*a*) shop agreements : i.e. agreements applicable to a single establishment ;

(*b*) local agreements : i.e. agreements applicable to several or all establishments of similar kind situated in the same locality ;

(*c*) district agreements : i.e. agreements applicable to several or all establishments of similar kind situated in several or all localities belonging to a district forming an economic or an administrative unit ;

(*d*) national agreements : i.e. agreements applicable to several or all establishments of similar kind in several districts or in the country as a whole.

C. *Subjects regulated.* The agreements should be classified in the following two principal groups :

(*a*) agreements regulating individual conditions of employment only ;

(*b*) agreements regulating — in addition to individual conditions of employment — general matters relative to employment.

In group (*b*) the number of agreements providing for special procedure for the enforcement of the agreement may be shown separately.

The statistics should also indicate the number of agreements which regulate each subject of importance, e.g. wages, hours of work, holidays, conditions of apprenticeship, labour exchanges, works councils, conciliation and arbitration.

D. *Duration of validity.* The agreements should be classified according to the period for which they are concluded, as follows :

(*a*) 3 months or less ;
(*b*) 3 to 6 months ;
(*c*) 6 months to one year ;
(*d*) 1 to 2 years ;
(*e*) 2 to 3 years ;
(*f*) more than 3 years ;
(*g*) indefinite period.

E. *Method of conclusion.* The agreements should be classified according to the method of the conclusion of the agreement and according to the method of negotiation, as follows :

(*a*) Collective agreements concluded as a consequence of an industrial dispute :

(i) by direct negotiations,
(ii) through the intervention of a third party ;

(*b*) Collective agreements concluded as a consequence of peaceful discussion :

(i) by direct negotiations,
(ii) through the intervention of a third party.

F. *Industries covered.* The agreements should be classified according to the principal industrial groups. The classification may be left to the domain of national statistics.

G. *Industrial importance.* The agreements should be classified according to their industrial importance, as defined under (3).

(*a*) Classification of agreements by the number of establishments covered :

(i) agreements covering one establishment,
(ii) „ „ 2 to 20 establishments,
(iii) „ „ 21 to 100 establishments,
(iv) „ „ more than 100 establishments.

(*b*) Classification of agreements according to the number of workers covered :

(i) agreements covering less than 100 workers,
(ii) ,, ,, 100 to 1,000 workers,
(iii) ,, ,, 1,001 to 10,000 workers,
(iv) ,, ,, 10,001 to 100,000 workers,
(v) ,, ,, more than 100,000 workers.

A distinction should also be made between workers who are members of the organisation which is a party to the agreement and other workers to whom the agreement applies in practice.

III. Statistics of Industrial Disputes

In each country statistics of industrial disputes should be compiled according to the following general principles :

(1) The basic unit — the case of dispute — should be defined as a temporary stoppage of work wilfully effected by a group of workers or by one or more employers with a view to enforcing a demand. Disputes affecting several establishments should be considered as one case if they are organised or directed by one person or organisation.

It is desirable to make, as far as possible, a distinction between strikes and lockouts.

(2) The statistics should relate to disputes beginning in the period under review, and also, but separately, to those continuing from the previous period. The total of these two groups of disputes represents the number of disputes in existence during the period under review.

(3) The importance of the dispute should be measured by ascertaining the number of establishments and of workers affected by the dispute, the duration of the dispute, and the number of man-days lost on account of the dispute.

The number of establishments affected should be based on the technical unit as defined in censuses of industries.

The number of workers affected should be based on the vacancies caused in the establishments affected by the dispute, and calculated by taking an average of the number of vacancies each day during which the dispute lasted, or, where this is not practicable, by taking an average of the number of vacancies recorded at weekly intervals.

The duration of the dispute should be expressed as the number of working days from the date on which the dispute began in the first establishment affected to the date on which it terminated in the last one.

The number of man-days lost should be based on the number of vacancies caused by the dispute during each day of the dispute, or, where this is not praticable, by multiplying the number of days for which the dispute lasted by the average number of vacancies recorded at weekly intervals.

(4) The disputes, together with the number of establishments and workers affected, the duration of disputes, and the number of man-days lost, should be classified according to their principal characteristics, namely :

A. *The matter in dispute.* The principal criterion should be the relation of the dispute to collective bargaining as follows :

(*a*) Disputes related to collective bargaining :

(i) concerning trade unionism or refusal to conclude a collective agreement ;

(ii) concerning conditions of employment :
(1) wages,
(2) hours of labour,
(3) engagement or dismissal of workers,
(4) others.

(*b*) Disputes not related to collective bargaining :
(i) sympathetic disputes ;
(ii) political disputes ;
(iii) others.

Groups (*a*) (ii) may also be classified into disputes concerning general terms of future employment, and disputes concerning the interpretation of existing terms of employment.

B. *The result of the disputes.* Disputes should be classified according to their general result from the point of view of workers involved, as follows :

(*a*) disputes where the workers' demands have been entirely accepted ;

(*b*) disputes where the workers' demands have been partially accepted ;

(*c*) disputes where the workers' demands have been rejected ;

(*d*) disputes where the employers' demands have been entirely accepted ;

(*e*) disputes where the employers' demands have been partially accepted ;

(*f*) disputes where the employers' demands have been rejected ;

(*g*) disputes with indeterminate or unknown result.

C. *The method of settlement of the disputes.* Disputes should be classified according to the method of their settlement on the following lines :

(*a*) disputes settled by direct negotiations between the two parties ;

(*b*) disputes settled by the medium of a third party :
(i) through voluntary conciliation accepted by the parties to the dispute,
(ii) through compulsory conciliation imposed by the law,
(iii) through voluntary arbitration,
(iv) through compulsory arbitration.

(*c*) Disputes terminated without successful negotiations.

D. *The industries affected.* Disputes should be classified according to the principal industrial groups. The classification may be left to the domain of national statistics.

E. *The extent of the disputes.* Disputes should be classified according to the number of establishments affected as follows :

(*a*) disputes affecting one establishment,
(*b*) ,, ,, 2 to 10 establishments,
(*c*) ,, ,, 11 to 20 establishments,
(*d*) ,, ,, 21 to 100 establishments,
(*e*) ,, ,, more than 100 establishments.

F. *The importance of disputes.* Disputes should be classified according to their importance, taking as criteria the number of workers affected, the duration of the disputes, and the number of man-days lost.

(*a*) The classification of disputes by the number of workers affected should be as follows :
(i) disputes affecting less than 10 workers,
(ii) ,, ,, 10 to 100 workers,
(iii) ,, ,, 101 to 1,000 workers.

(iv) „ „ 1,001 to 10,000 workers,
(v) „ „ 10,001 to 100,000 workers,
(vi) „ „ over 100,000 workers.

(*b*) The classification of disputes by their duration should be as follows :

(i) disputes lasting less than 2 working days,
(ii) „ „ from 2 to 10 working days,
(iii) „ „ „ 11 to 50 working days,
(iv) „ „ „ 51 to 100 working days,
(v) „ „ „ 101 to 300 working days,
(vi) „ „ over 300 working days.

(*c*) Disputes should be classified by the number of man-days lost as follows :

(i) disputes involving the loss of less than 20 man-days,
(ii) „ „ „ „ of 20 to 1,000 man-days,
(iii) „ „ „ „ of 1,001 to 50,000 man-days,
(iv) „ „ „ „ of 50,001 to 1,000,000 man-days,
(v) „ „ „ „ of 1,000,001 to 30,000,000 man-days,
(vi) „ „ „ „ of over 30,000,000 man-days.

G. *Amount of wages lost.* The wage loss caused by each dispute may be estimated by multiplying the number of man-days lost by the average daily wages of the workers affected. The classification of disputes according to the amount of wages lost may be left to the domain of national statistics.

(5) For the purpose of comparing the risk of industrial disputes between different industries and countries, frequency and severity rates of disputes should be calculated.

The exposure to risk should be expressed in terms of the number of full-time workers, obtained by dividing the total number of days worked during the period by the total number of normal working days in the same period.

The frequency rate should show the number of disputes per 100,000 full-time workers. The severity rate should show the number of man-days lost per 10,000 full-time workers.

(6) The above mentioned data should be published at least yearly. It is desirable, however, that preliminary figures dealing more particularly with the number of disputes should be published monthly.

IV. Classification of Industries

(1) This Conference recommends the International Labour Office to elaborate the list of the most important industries submitted to it so as to show in greater detail the contents of each industrial group in the different countries, obtaining from the Governments any neces ary information on the subject. This amplified list should be submitted in due course to the different Governments for their information and comment.

(2) The Conference also recommends the International Labour Office to pursue its endeavours in collaboration with the League of Nations and the International Statistical Institute to compare the existing classifications and to promote their gradual readjustment in the direction of greater uniformity and better comparability.

Some Aspects of the Labour Problem in China

by

P. Henry

The problem of labour conditions in China has engag d the attention of the International Labour Organisation since its creation. Several articles on the subject have already appeared in the International Labour Review[1], *dealing with the Provisional Factory Regulations recently adopted by the Chinese Government, the efforts made towards the regulation of child labour in the Foreign Settlement of Shanghai, and with labour conditions and the labour movement in China generally. The author of the present article — who has collected a mass of information and first-hand impressions as a result of personal enquiry on the spot — attempts to define the existing situation in the country from the standpoints both of labour legislation and of actual labour conditions, and to draw some inference as to the future developments which, in his opinion, are already within sight. At a time when the social and political problems of China are attracting world-wide attention the editors of the* Review *consider that it may be of interest to present this general survey of the question, whilst leaving to the author the responsibility for the opinions expressed in it.*

The Regulation of Labour Conditions

IT IS necessary in the first instance to draw two distinctions, one between the Central Government of Peking and the Provincial Government of Canton, and the other between territories under direct Chinese authority and those under foreign administration.

The most important labour regulations adopted by the Peking Government are the Provisional Factory Regulations promulgated

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[1] Cf. *International Labour Review*, Vol. VIII, No. 1, July 1923, pp. 1-20 : " Labour and Industry in China ", by J. B. Tayler and W. T. Zung ; Vol. X, No. 6, Dec. 1924, pp. 1005-1028 : " Labour Conditions and Labour Regulation in China " ; Vol. XI, No. 5, May 1925, pp. 665-681 : " The Recommendations of the Shanghai Child Labour Commission ", by Dame Adelaide Anderson ; Vol. XII, No. 5, Nov. 1925, pp. 668-676 : " Labour Conditions in China ".

by the Minister of Agriculture and Commerce on 29 March 1923[1]. Their principal provisions are as follow : a minimum age limit of 10 years for boys and 12 for girls ; a maximum working day of 8 hours and prohibition of night work and dangerous employment for boys below 17 and girls below 18 ; a maximum day of 10 hours for adults ; a rest period of 10 weeks in all and a suitable allowance for women workers before and after childbirth ; etc. The provisions of these Regulations have been commented upon by the press of all countries, some seeing in them the beginnings of a new era for the labouring population of China, others pointing out that the Regulations serve to protect but an infinitesimal number of workers, relating as they do only to " factories which usually employ not less than 100 workers ". Moreover, the Regulations provide no penalties in case of non-observance of their provisions, the final section being limited to the statement that the Regulations shall come into operation on the date of their promulgation. Further, it has generally been considered that even had penalties been laid down, the Peking Government would not have been in a position to enforce them.

It here seems desirable to make clear the intentions of the Chinese Government in drawing up these Regulations. The term *kung-ch'ang*, translated as " factory ", was used designedly. It has only recently been introduced into the Chinese language and may be considered as including modern industrial undertakings only, others falling under the ancestral category *ye fu*. The Chinese Government were in fact thinking of the dangers to the health and morality of China attendant upon the introduction of modern mechanical methods. It also makes its intention clear in holding that the initial efforts should be directed towards modern undertakings using these methods and employing over 100 workers, others being regarded as akin rather to the ancient Chinese industry and its family traditions. In acting thus, it was as a matter of fact acting entirely in conformity with the suggestion made by the Special Commission appointed by the International Labour Conference at its First Session (Washington, 1919)[2], that a beginning should be made " in the framing and administration of [factory] legislation with reference to such important industry as now exists ".

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[1] Cf. INTERNATIONAL LABOUR OFFICE : *Legislative Series*, 1923, Chin. 1.

[2] Cf. Report of the Commission on the application of the Hours-of-Work Convention to special countries, as provided in Article 405 of the Treaty of Peace (Proceedings of the International Labour Conference, First Session, p. 231).

It may reasonably be asked whether failure to provide penalties under the Factory Regulations is to be regarded as an admission of weakness on the part of the Peking Government. In March 1923 the Peking Government was firmly established. Li Yuan Hung, President of the Republic, and Chang Shao-Tseng, Prime Minister, had the support of the armies under Marshal Wu Pei Fu, which were masters of the whole of China with the exception of Manchuria and the Province of Canton. Thus lack of authority cannot be pleaded. Whilst some justification might be held to lie in the provisional nature of the Regulations and in the fact that, constitutionally, the imposition of penalties would have necessitated the passing of an Act[1], the motives actuating the Chinese Government must in reality be sought elsewhere.

The Chinese revolution, whereby Republican rule was established, took place no more than fifteen years ago. The Chinese Empire had previously, under the various successive dynasties since that of Hia (2200 B.C.), adhered to a policy of non-intervention in economic affairs. This rule was particularly rigid in regard to the relations between employers and workers ; these were regulated within each guild by means of special agreements, with which the central, provincial, and even local authorities were careful not to interfere. The conception of state control of the relations between individuals is as yet too new in China to find immediate general application, and the Chinese Government has no desire to force a process which is only slowly making its way in the minds of the people. By the Decrees of 12 September 1914 and 1 February 1916 it had fixed the bases for the organisation of Chambers of Commerce, and in 1917 it had limited the sphere of activity of industrial and commercial associations ; in 1923, similarly, it made its first move towards the regulation of labour conditions. But in none of these cases were any penalties provided for non-observance, and it acted similarly some years later (in 1925-1926) when drawing up a Bill relating to trade unions.

To this difficulty of adaptation is added that of the immense area of the country. This was explained by H.E. Tang Tsai Fu, senior Chinese Delegate to the Seventh Session of the International Labour Conference, in the course of a speech[2] delivered before that assembly on 29 May 1925 :

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[1] Cf. the Constitutional Act of 11 March 1912, section 6 : " No citizen shall be arrested, imprisoned, sentenced, or punished except in conformity with the law. "

[2] Cf. Proceedings of the International Labour Conference, Fourth Session, Geneva, 1925, Vol. I, p. 120.

I consider it my duty to draw the attention of the Conference to the nature of the Regulations of 29 March 1923. The Chinese Government was of opinion that in a country of such area, peopled by a quarter of the total population of the globe, it was impossible completely to transform labour conditions in a single day. It also took into consideration the factor to which I referred a moment ago, namely, the political and administrative decentralisation in the country, and desired that a Decree of such importance should carry the weight of a guiding principle, it being understood that the Government would further the adoption of such reforms by all means within its power.

Dr. W. W. Yen, ex-Prime Minister and Minister of Agriculture and Commerce shortly after the promulgation of the Regulations, spoke in similar terms in the course of a conversation with the writer at Peking about two years ago.

The Factory Regulations are thus advisory rather than imperative. As such, are they altogether valueless ? And what of other similar Regulations promulgated by the Chinese Government in the course of the same year, relating to labour in mines[1] in one case and to prohibition of the use of white phosphorus in the manufacture of matches[2] in the other (application of the Berne Convention of 1906) ? Without being able to state that, on the strength of words alone, important modifications have been made in Chinese labour conditions, the fact remains that the " guiding principles " of the Peking Government have been wholly or partially adopted in many cases. It is to be noted in the first place that, notwithstanding the difficulties with which successive Ministries have been faced in the course of recent years, the Peking Government has not relaxed its efforts. In February 1926, with a civil war in full course, it adopted the Recommendation of the Fifth Session of the International Labour Conference concerning general principles for the organisation of factory inspection, and appointed six labour inspectors attached to the Ministry of Agriculture and Commerce[3]. This has not been without its effect. Various Chinese employers' associations, and in particular the Chinese Association of Cotton Spinners, some months ago addressed a request to the Peking Government that, in pursuance of section 2 of the Regulations of 29 March 1923[4], the provisions thereof should be extended to foreign-owned

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[1] *Legislative Series*, 1923, Chin. 2 and 3.

[2] *Legislative Series*, 1923, Chin. 4; cf. also *Official Bulletin*, 11 July 1923.

[3] Cf. *Industrial and Labour Information*, Vol. XVIII, p. 279.

[4] " Foreign factories established on Chinese territory which fulfil the above conditions shall also be covered by these Regulations " [i.e. " those which usually employ not less than 100 workers ", and " those which are dangerous or unhealthy "].

factories[1]. It may be wondered whether such a request would have been made by them had it not been their intention to act upon the Peking " guiding principles " in the more or less near future.

It is difficult for western peoples to grasp the Chinese mentality. For them, whose lives are regulated down to the smallest details, an order not carrying with it penalties for non-observance is ineffective. This explains the present writer's surprise, in the course of visits to more than fifty factories in the principal industrial centres of China during 1924, at hearing Chinese employers refer to the Factory Regulations recommended by the Peking Government and to their efforts to apply them. At Shanghai not only the Commercial Press, a house well known for its philanthropic works, but also cotton spinning mills, such as those belonging to the firm Sincere and Co., had fixed the minimum age for employment at 12 years for both sexes. Hair net factories at Chefoo had also fixed the minimum age at 12 years and limited the working day to 9 hours, whilst a refinery in that town, belonging to the Tung Yi Company, had fixed the minimum age at 14. Porcelain works at Peking itself were working only 10 hours per day and employing only young persons over 12, and so on. The undertakings in question are purely Chinese both as to capital and management. Obviously, there were many others still far below the standard of the Regulations. But surely the fact that such efforts have been made in such difficult times in itself constitutes some guarantee for the future.

Does what applies to the Factory Regulations apply also to the other Decrees mentioned ? An enquiry has recently been held by the Peking Economic Information Bureau[2] amongst match factories in Chekiang. Without particularly emphasising what was regarded as an accomplished fact, the Report mentions *inter alia* that " the use of white phosphorus being forbidden, only red phosphorus is used ". Similar observations had been made about two years previously by Dr. C. T. Maitland, who was appointed by the National Christian Council to investigate cases of necrosis of the jaw due to poisoning by white phosphorus[3]. In most of the factories visited by him, in both the centre and the north of China, Dr. Maitland found genuine efforts to effect a rapid substitution of red phosphorus for white. Some factories used both, whilst others

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[1] Cf. *Industrial and Labour Information*, Vol. XIX, p. 137.

[2] Cf. *Chinese Economic Bulletin*, 17 April 1926.

[3] Cf. report to the National Christian Council of China on phosphorus poisoning in Chinese match factories, in *China Journal of Science and Arts*, Vol. III, Nos. 2-3, Feb.-March 1925.

had already completely changed over. These measures had in all cases been taken at the request of the Chinese authorities, made when communicating the text of China's adherence to the Berne Convention. Dr. Maitland even relates how he and the present writer were denied admittance to the only match factory in Peking, the reason given being that no visitor would be admitted until 1 January 1925, the date on which the Government Decree prohibiting the use of white phosphorus was to become operative.

With regard to the Decrees relating to work in mines, these, like the Provisional Factory Regulations, apply only to modern undertakings and have therefore but a very limited field of application. The mining industry in China is at present confined to a few districts, the most important undertakings being worked by companies which are either partially or wholly foreign. These are the coal mines of Kailan and Chinghsing in the Province of Chihli, of Fushun in Manchuria, of Chung-Yuan and the Peking Syndicate in Honan, and the iron mines of Han-Yeh-Ping in Hupeh and Yu-Fan in Anhwei, other minerals being worked on a very small scale only. The information collected suggests that these undertakings are more or less closely complying with the Mining Regulations of 1923.

In studies on labour legislation in China, the fact is rarely mentioned that since June 1917 — when Sun Yat Sen established the Government of Southern China — Canton and the territories within its sphere of influence have formed a political entity separate from the rest of China. Whilst theoretically the laws of the Peking Government are applicable to the Southern Provinces as to the others, in practice the Canton Government has its own laws. So far as is known to the writer, the Government of Sun Yat Sen and his successors, althoug its progressive tendencies are undeniable, has not legislated in regard to labour matters to any great extent. It has outstripped the Peking Government in adopting, towards the end of 1924, regulations on the freedom of association[1], but it is only recently that it has turned its attention to the problem of female and child labour, in connection with which two committees have been appointed by the Department of Agriculture and Commerce[2]. In particular, it does not yet appear to have come to any decision with regard to the eight principles which the Second

[1] Cf. *Industrial and Labour Information*, Vol. XVII, p. 10.
[2] *Idem*, Vol XVIII, p. 319.

National Congress of the Kuomintang[1], meeting at Canton in January 1926, had laid down as the minimum claims of labour, and which it desired should be considered with as little delay as possible : the 8-hour day, minimum age limit of 14, payment of wages in full to women workers during confinement, hygiene and safety, etc. — claims which were reiterated and amplified by the Third " All-China " Labour Congress which met on 1 May 1926[2], also at Canton.

China, from the territorial standpoint, occupies a special position. Certain portions of the country have been permanently or temporarily separated from the remainder, such as the colonies of Hong Kong and Macao and the leased territories of Kowloon, Weihaiwei, Kwangchouwan, and the Liaotung Peninsula ; others, in accordance with treaties signed by China during the nineteenth century, are subject to certain sovereignty restrictions, such being the concessions administered by certain foreign powers individually — e.g. Tientsin and Hankow — or by a number of such powers jointly — e.g. the Foreign Settlement of Shanghai. It was in view of these special conditions that the Special Commission already mentioned of the First International Labour Conference put forward the following recommendation[3] :

> In view of the special difficulties which the Chinese Government may experience from the existence of foreign settlements and leased territories, the Commission suggests that the Conference should make the necessary representations to the Governments concerned (that is, to those Governments which at present exercise jurisdiction in these settlements and territories under treaties and engagements with China) to enforce in their territories within China the same restrictions as the Chinese Government has accepted ; or, in the alternative, to decree that labour legislation adopted by the Government of China shall be enforced by that Government within those foreign settlements and territories where extraterritorial jurisdiction exists at present.

It need hardly be said that Chinese legislation is not applicable in territories over which China has relinquished sovereignty. Foreign powers occupying these territories are therefore, from the legal standpoint, under no obligation with regard to any legislation adopted by the Chinese Government. The Government

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[1] Cf. *Canton Republican Daily News*, 16 Jan. 1926. The Kuomintang is the political party founded by Dr. Sun Yat Sen ; it is in power in the Southern Provinces.

[2] Cf. *Industrial and Labour Information*, Vol. XIX, p. 145.

[3] Proceedings of the Conference, p. 231.

of the Colony of Hong Kong is the only one which has actually taken steps to regulate labour conditions, and this only in the matter of the protection of child labour[1] (limitation of the working day to 9 hours for children under 15, prohibition of the employment of those under 10, and in certain cases under 12 or 15, etc.). These measures were adopted prior to the promulgation of the Chinese Government's Provisional Regulations.

The position of the concessions is entirely different. According to the terms of the various treaties relating to concessions in China, from that of 8 October 1843 with Great Britain to that of 19 October 1896 with Japan, the powers of the concessionary authorities are limited to municipal administration, and, in certain special cases, police measures[2]. It is thus clear that in all other connections Chinese legislation must be enforced, the concessionary authorities merely confining themselves to seeing that this is done. There is no reason why this rule should not be observed in regard to labour legislation.

Only one attempt has so far been made to introduce measures for the protection of labour in the foreign concessions — that of the regulation of child labour in the Foreign Settlement of Shanghai, already several times referred to in these pages. It would not appear, on the face of it, that the general principle of Chinese sovereignty in the matter of legislation had been overlooked in this case. In fact, the following passage from the report by the Child Labour Commission[3] appointed by the Municipal Council in 1923 may be quoted :

> In March 1923 the Peking Government promulgated certain regulations in connexion with labour in factories. These regulations are at present provisional only and have not the force of law. In his address to the Commission at its first meeting, the then Chairman of the Council expressed the opinion that it would be advisable for the Commission, in recommending any regulations, to take as a basis the regulations above mentioned with a view to securing uniformity within and without the limits of the Foreign Settlement.

The original intention of the Municipal Council was therefore to follow the provisions of the Peking Government's Regulations as closely as possible. But for various reasons, chief amongst

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[1] *Legislative Series*, 1922, H.-K. 1.

[2] Cf. CHAN-CHUN-SING : *Les concessions en Chine* ; E. CATELLANI : *La Penetrazione Straniera nell' Estremo Oriente* ; etc.

[3] Cf. *The Municipal Gazette*, being the Official Organ of the Executive Council for the Foreign Settlement of Shanghai, Vol. XVII, No. 927, 19 July 1924, p. 266.

which was the fact that the Regulations had not yet been generally applied in the provinces adjoining the Settlement, the Commission finally made proposals which did not go quite so far as those of the Regulations. Night work, forbidden by the Peking Government, remained permissible, subject to reconsideration of the question by the Municipal Council after a period of four years; a day of 11 hours' actual work was allowed for children below 14, as compared with 8 hours for boys under 17 and girls under 18; the minimum age limit was uniformly fixed at 10 for both sexes, etc. On the other hand it was provided that fines and even imprisonment might be imposed for non-observance, and these Regulations were to be applicable to factories employing 10 or more workers.

It may be asked whether the Municipal Council was within its rights in thus modifying the terms of the Regulations of 29 March. This was contested by the Chinese General Chamber of Commerce of Shanghai in the Memorandum[1] submitted on 29 May 1925 to the Municipal Council of the Foreign Settlement, couched in the following terms:

> Not only do we have no objection to the proposed child labour by-law, but we wish to pledge to it our whole-hearted support. There are two points, however, to be raised: (1) In 1923 the Chinese Government promulgated a provisional law governing factories, in which restrictions are placed in connection with the employment of child labour. . . . If the Shanghai Municipal Council is really guided by humanitarian considerations and at the same time pays due respect to China's sovereign rights, why not enforce the Chinese Factory law in the Settlement?

As early as 1924, in a communication by the Chinese Minister at Berne, to the International Labour Office[2], concerning the possibility of enforcing the provisions of the Regulations of March 1923 in foreign concessions, the opinion was expressed that the Regulations should be applicable in these concessions.

From the strict legal standpoint a definitive or provisional Decree, with or without force of law, is applicable to the concessions *in extenso*. The argument advanced by the Chinese Government through their Minister at Berne, and supported by the Chinese General Chamber of Commerce of Shanghai, is incontrovertible. But if the spirit of the texts rather than their letter be taken into consideration it is easy to find arguments in favour of the

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[1] Cf. "Unanimous opposition of the General Chamber of Commerce of Shanghai and Commercial Bodies to resolutions III to VI submitted to the Special Meeting of Ratepayers by the Shanghai Municipal Council", p. (VI).

[2] Cf. *International Labour Review*, Vol. X, No. 6, Dec. 1924, p. 1011.

measures proposed by the Municipal Council of Shanghai. The statement made by the Chinese Delegate to the Seventh Session of the International Labour Conference has already been cited in order to define the character of the Provisional Factory Regulations, and it is understood that the intention of the Peking Government was to lay down " guiding principles ". Moreover, it is undeniable that the Child Labour Commission took these principles as a basis when formulating its own proposals. On the other hand, since its intention was to give these the rigour which is customary in western legislation, it found that in certain cases it could not go so far as the Peking Government's Regulations; but examination of the Commission's report shows that this applies only to temporary measures, and that the Municipal Council fully intended to apply the Regulations of 29 March in their entirety as soon as circumstances should permit.

Since these special regulations involved an extension of the powers of the Municipal Council, the necessary by-law would require the approval of a special Meeting of the Ratepayers of the Foreign Settlement of Shanghai, and it has not yet been adopted by them. Submitted first at the annual meeting on 15 April 1925, it could not be discussed because the members present did not constitute a quorum[1]. An extraordinary meeting was called on 2 June of that year, but the attendance was again insufficient, and at the next meeting, in April 1926, the matter was not raised. It would seem that the criticisms, from both the foreign and the Chinese standpoints, of rigid regulation of the minimum age of employment of children, without simultaneous organisation of educational measures, have contributed to the temporary abandonment of this proposal; whilst a further consideration is the need for providing compensation in certain cases for parents whose children would no longer be admitted to work in factories. These questions had been only superficially considered when the report of the Child Labour Commission was drafted, and are at present being studied in greater detail.

No measures for the enforcement of the Chinese Factory Regulations have yet been taken by the other concessions. The Settlement of Shanghai being by far the most important from the industrial standpoint, it is natural that the others should await the results of the experiments made in that city.

[1] Cf. Report of the Director of the International Labour Office, submitted to the Eighth Session of the International Labour Conference, Geneva, 1926, pp. 453 and 454.

Labour Conditions

In the course of the last few years many articles have appeared in newspapers and reviews, both foreign and Chinese[1], upon labour conditions in Chinese industry. On the other hand, the only official documents at present available are of foreign origin : they are the report by the Shanghai Child Labour Commission and the enquiry made by the British Consular authorities in 1924[2]. These have been widely circulated, and have formed the basis of practically all articles since written on labour conditions in China.

The most remarkable feature of these reports — a feature which, to the present writer's knowledge, has not been previously commented upon — is that in general only material conditions of labour are dealt with. No real attempt has been made to express the sentiments, desires, and aspirations of Chinese workers ; the moral conditions of life in the old Chinese industry, including such factors as the relations between employer and worker, family life in the factory itself, how hours of attendance at the workshop are reckoned, religious or national holidays and how they interrupt the course of work ; how these conditions have been changed in modern industry by the introduction of compulsory attention to work, less freedom, and less intimacy owing to the disappearance of direct personal contact between employer and worker. All these factors enter into the study of labour conditions in both western and eastern countries, but nowhere to the same extent as in China, where family relations and relations between employer and worker have alike been modelled by millennial traditions. Material conditions of life have their importance in this country, where the spectre of famine rises at every turn, but certain moral considerations scarcely touched upon in the investigations referred to should not be overlooked. In this connection a passage from a speech delivered on 2 June 1926[3] by H.E. Chao Hsin Chu, senior Chinese Delegate to the Eighth Session of the International Labour Conference, may be quoted.

The Chinese peasant is happy, not because he enjoys great material comfort, but because the accomplishment of his work goes hand in

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[1] E.g. in the first group the articles by Professor Ta Chen of Peking, in the *Monthly Labour Review* of the United States Bureau of Labour Statistics, and in the second those in the *Chinese Social and Political Science Review*.

[2] *International Labour Review*, Vol. XII, No. 5, Nov. 1925, pp. 668-676.

[3] Proceedings of the International Labour Conference, Eighth Session, Geneva, 1926, pp. 130-133.

hand with a feeling of independence. He remembers the old Chinese philosophers who have taught him to appreciate the value of a simple life and of human dignity. . . . The mode of life of Chinese workers is as simple as that of the peasants — in fact, they were peasants before becoming factory workers. They do not seek material comfort to the same extent as do western workers : they ask neither pleasure nor leisure, and are content with a wage which just enables them to live ; but what they do claim is the right to be treated as human beings and not as machines. This is why it is not surprising that during the recent strikes at Shanghai, their chief demands were for fairer treatment by foremen and for the right to talk whilst working. Demands for increased wages and shorter hours, when they were made at all, were never considered of first importance. I mention these facts to exemplify the special character of the labour problem in China. I do not by any means consider the present state of affairs perfect, but wish clearly to establish the fact that modern industrial systems should adapt themselves to China, and not China to them.

To be complete, a study of labour conditions in China should therefore deal with both the material and the moral aspects of the life of the workers in that country. A clear distinction should also be drawn between the workshops of the old industry and those which are organised on modern lines.

In describing the former, the labour conditions still obtaining in the family industry of western countries should be taken into consideration, not with the idea of finding an excuse for the existing state of affairs in China, but in order to try to determine what improvements compatible with Asiatic mentality could be made. Without any attempt to Europeanise eastern countries, there are measures, in such fields as hygiene and industrial safety, to which China might adapt herself without in any way abandoning her traditions of family life.

Even such westerners as cannot be accused of speaking of the miseries of Asia in ignorance of those of their own country, cannot but be moved to pity at the sight of one of the many workshops operating under the old industrial régime, to be met with in all Chinese towns, on the coasts as well as in the interior. The entrance is littered with filth, factory waste, and ordure of all kinds, the buildings are black with dirt inside and out, the narrow windows closed summer and winter alike, and the earthen floors covered with mud or dust. Match factories are particularly bad[1] : large sheds seething with women and children who shiver with cold in winter and suffocate with heat in summer, so dark that artificial light is necessary even at high noon. In the old silk

[1] *Cf.* the report by Dr. C. T. Maitland already cited.

filatures of Shantung[1] the ceilings are barely man-high, and the workshops are so narrow that there is scarcely room for two rows abreast of the primitive looms, separated only by a narrow passage with an earthen floor full of accumulated rubbish. The atmosphere is steaming hot summer and winter, so that the men have to work stripped to the waist; and if they have to go outside, they do not take the trouble to cover themselves, even in the bitter cold common in northern China during several months of the year. The prevalence of tuberculosis is hardly surprising in these circumstances. In some factories 70 per cent. of the workers are affected. Eating and sleeping where they have toiled all day, one infects another. Dismissed when illness prevents them from carrying out their daily work, they return to the homes which they left in good health some ten years before, advanced consumptives at an age at which so many young people have scarcely completed their studies.

Still more depressing is the spectacle of the carpet factories of Tientsin and Peking, so well described in the report of the enquiry[2] made by C. C. Chu and T. Blaisdell. While in the match factories children work beside their mothers, and in the silk filatures of Chefoo the minimum age for employment is round about fourteen, in the carpet factories are seen children of seven and eight recruited from country districts by employment agents. The work involved is delicate and demands sustained attention; it is fatiguing to the eyes and the whole body owing to the sitting position which must be maintained for 12 to 14 hours per day. Here again the material conditions leave much to be desired. The workshops are arranged longways, with the benches cramped close together, so that the workers on the outside can work by daylight, but the others have to work by the flickering light of an oil lamp. One is half choked by an acrid odour, which in winter is sometimes accentuated by the carbonic acid gas given off by braziers lighted in the middle of the room. Abscesses of the face and scalp are common; as they receive no attention, the sores become septic, whilst the eyes, fatigued by the continual strain of fine work carried out in semi-darkness, become daily weaker.

To this evidence the present writer is in a position to add his own, having taken part in the enquiries, or subsequently visited,

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[1] Cf. the report of J. W. Nipps, of the Young Men's Christian Association at Chefoo, referred to in *International Labour Review*, Vol. XII, No. 5, Nov. 1925, p. 671.

[2] Cf. "Peking Rugs and Peking Boys", in *Chinese Social and Political Science Review*, April 1924.

with the investigators, the workshops chosen by them for investigation. He has himself everywhere found similar conditions in the old Chinese industry : the employment of children " at the earliest age possible, having regard to the nature of the work offered them ", to quote the phrase of the Shanghai Commission ; complete ignorance of the most rudimentary principles of hygiene ; in fine, conditions against which public opinion in western countries would revolt were their own nationals subjected to them. Fault might no doubt easily be found with labour conditions in European and American small-scale industry too ; it is, after all, perhaps only a matter of degree ; but the difference is such that only an eye-witness can see it at its true value.

Whatever prejudices are held against modern industrial methods, it must be recognised that they have brought the workers better material conditions of work, especially from the standpoint of workshop hygiene. In China the same causes have produced the same effects as elsewhere. Modern factory installations are planned on similar lines to those of the most advanced industrial countries. There has perhaps been less effort made to modernise the factories already established when the industrial revolution began in China. It is unfortunately true, for instance, that in the great industrial centre of Shanghai certain spinning mills have made no attempt to improve installations 40 or 50 years old ; but the internal arrangement of the factories can in general be favourably compared with similar undertakings in western countries. The Japanese factories are particularly praiseworthy. Being the last to enter the Chinese industrial market, they have been able to adopt the most modern improvements — single-storey buildings, with ample window space, constant ventilation, determination of the optimum temperature (even in cotton spinning and weaving shops, where a certain amount of humidity is necessary), instantaneous elimination of dust in cotton spinning mills, tiled floors of scrupulous cleanliness, dining-rooms and meeting rooms for the staff, workers' dwellings, etc. A similar effort has been made by Chinese undertakings managed by Chinese, particularly amongst those who have studied in foreign countries. In some of their spinning mills steps have even been taken to eliminate the dangers of transmission belts distributing power from a central source, by the adoption of the system of individual control (an electric motor for each machine). This effort towards progress is continual, and shows the ease of adaptability of Asiatics to modern methods when they are actuated

by a real desire to apply them. Is Chinese large-scale industry to be regarded as perfect in consequence? Such a thesis becomes untenable when, instead of looking at the framework only, consideration is directed to those living within that framework.

Here again it is necessary to be on guard against the statements of certain foreigners who, no doubt with the best intentions, criticise the shortcomings of large-scale industry in China in complete ignorance of the ordinary labour conditions in other countries. Thus the employment of women workers in spinning mills is general throughout the world. Curiously enough, China is perhaps the only country in which — in certain districts, at least — male labour is employed exclusively in the cotton and silk spinning and weaving mills, the employment of women workers being contrary to custom in both modern and old factories. Subject to these reservations, labour conditions are unquestionably worse in China than in similar industries in western countries, or in India or Japan. Ample evidence has been put before the world by the publication of the Shanghai Child Labour Commission's Report. There is nothing to withdraw in that Report, prepared as it was after an exhaustive investigation in a large number of factories in the Foreign Settlement of Shanghai and its neighbourhood.

It should, however, be noted that Shanghai is the largest modern industrial centre in China, the others — Tientsin, Harbin, Hankow, Mukden, and Tsing Tao — being far less important. Failing concerted action, endeavours to improve labour conditions can be tentative only, owing to competition. Further, Shanghai is situated at the mouth of the largest navigable river in China, the Yangtse-Kiang, and accommodates the refugees of the whole valley in the event of famine, flood, or civil war. Its magnetic force stretches farther than that of any other city in China, the fame of its wealth penetrating to the most distant provinces. Hence the cost of living is higher there than in the remainderof the country, whilst wages are very little higher. The housing shortage is particularly severe, and leads to unfair exploitation of the workers. Labour being very abundant, workers have to accept the hardest of labour conditions in order to live at all. No longer protected by guilds, deprived also of the family support which is so powerful a factor in China at critical moments, they were until recently still at the mercy of the employers, and it is only within the last few years that they have begun to organise themselves for the defence of their interests in accordance with modern trade union principles.

The conclusion would thus seem to be that modern industrial labour conditions in the interior of China are not necessarily the same as those in Shanghai. In fact, they would even appear to be worse in that city than anywhere else. At the same time, the following characteristics emerge: generally speaking, the working day is too long, wages are at starvation rates, and safety devices are lacking; in spinning mills in particular, subject to the reservations already made, women and children are employed on night work, and children are employed as soon as they are old enough to be useful. The working day, although shorter on the whole than in the old industry, is usually round about 12 hours, and rarely less than 10. Similarly wages, whilst 25 to 30 per cent. above those paid for similar work in the old industry, are too low for an unskilled worker to support his family, unless his wife and children work too, in view of the high cost of living in the large industrial centres. The lack of safety devices is felt more particularly in large-scale industry, only a few undertakings having been willing to embark on the expenditure necessary to combat the dangers of modern high-speed machinery. Examples of the terrible accidents which are of frequent occurrence are given in a recent report prepared by the Young Mens' Christian Association in China[1]. In November 1925 a little girl of 13 was found towards 2 o'clock in the morning with her head crushed under a spinning machine in the Shanghai Cotton Mill. According to the foreman's report she had fallen asleep near the machine and had been scalped by a driving belt. Similar accidents had been reported in the Shanghai press[2] a few months earlier — children having their lips and teeth torn away, little girls scalped, etc. Only one attempt has been made to compile accident statistics[3]; the tables show that one-third of the children treated at the Industrial Hospital of Shanghai were totally disabled (the proportion in the case of women was 44 per cent.); two-thirds of these children were victims of machinery accidents, the majority having received head or hand injuries. It was the night shifts which suffered most, as indeed happens wherever work is carried on continuously.

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[1] Cf. M. Thomas Tchou: *The Present-Day Industrial Situation and the Labour Movement in China*, pp. 3-4. Shanghai, Industrial Department of the National Committee Y. M. C. A. of China, 1926.

[2] Cf. *North China Daily News*, 1 June 1925.

[3] Cf. Dr. H. W. Decker: "Industrial Hospital, Shanghai: Review of 880 Casse from the Cotton Mills", in *China Medical Journal*, March 1924.

There is no object to be served here by insisting upon the other ill effects of night work on the physical and moral health of the population. They are particularly striking in China owing to the fact that children of six and seven are employed on night work, and there is no sight more pathetic than that of women and children leaving the factories after 12 or 13 hours on the night shift. A Shanghai resident even told the present writer how, during his morning rides, he avoided certain streets because the children returning home half asleep from the factories had scarcely the strength left to move aside to let him pass.

To sum up, in so far as it is possible to generalise, the material labour conditions in modern industry are superior to those in the old industry in matters of workshop hygiene and hours of work. Wages are very low in both cases, and children are employed from the earliest age at which they can do useful work. Finally, modern mechanical methods have introduced into China the scourge of night work, which is made worse still by the lack of safety devices.

The difference from the point of view of moral labour conditions is much greater. It has already been stated that the old Chinese industry operates on the basis of the family system, even in factories where large numbers are employed. In China family relationships extend far. Every Chinaman is bound by the fundamental moral principles of his country to assist and protect his children, grandchildren, nephews, grandnephews, and so on. To a lesser degree mutual aid extends also to friends and neighbours, as, for instance, to members of the same street guild. The Chinese employer thus naturally tends to surround himself with members of his family, even to distant relations, or at all events with persons long known to him. This system of recruiting labour is the determining factor in the spirit of harmony which rules in Chinese undertakings under the old industrial system. It explains how the guilds have succeeded in establishing equilibrium in the economic life of China without tyranny on the part of the employer. Moreover, the employer lives among his workers, and there is nothing to distinguish him from them either in clothes or in general demeanour. His authority does not require a gulf to be fixed between him and the workers under him. The result is that a degree of intimacy exists in Chinese factories under the old system such as is unknown in any other country. Though the hours are long, work commencing at dawn and finishing sometimes late at night, there are frequent breaks. There are endless gossipings in which the employer

joins ; cups of tea are handed round ; if there is an unusual noise in the street, *exeunt omnes*, and work is resumed only after long palavers. Holidays are frequent, particularly at the New Year, when the factories are often closed for several weeks ; no plausible excuse for absence is ever ill received by the employer. Food is eaten as in a family circle, employers, workers, and apprentices sharing the same pittance ; they share the same housing conditions, however miserable these may be. The workers have therefore no excuse for jealousy of their employer — in fact, many of them, having finished their apprenticeship, set up on their own account without changing their mode of life in any way. Despite his conditions of living, the Chinese worker is happy. Contented with little, but conscious of his equaity with all around him, he seesk no betterment of his lot so long as no economic upheaval comes to change his life's habitual course.

Under the modern industrial system this intimacy and familiarity disappear. The difference extends not only to the size of undertakings, but also to methods of organisation. The workers employed are no longer relatives, even if distant, neighbours, or friends, but an unstable body of labour with no personal contact except with the foreman recruiting it. The foreman arranges for the payment of wages, acting as intermediary between the employer and his staff, and often exploits the wretchedness of the workers in his charge by deducting a percentage of their wages as a condition of employment and maintenance in the factory or by brutal treatment, etc. The effects of the family tradition are no longer felt. Moreover, the strictness of the hours of attendance and the compulsion to work steadily are a source of discontent amongst the workers. While the hours are shorter, they are also fuller, and frequent absence, such as is the rule in the old industry, is no longer tolerated. The factory, once merely an extension of family life itself, becomes a prison. The introduction of mechanical methods has brought about a similar evolution in all countries, but nowhere else has it come up against such firmly established traditions.

It is accordingly in modern factories, in spite of the immense superiority of their workshops as regards equipment, that the elements of revolt among the workers are fomented. Strikes and mutinies, the latter going so far as the assassination of foremen, increase year by year. The origin of these movements does not lie solely in the propaganda of a few leaders ; they are also undoubtedly the outcome of too sudden a disturbance of the old equilibrium, of a certain social disorganisation common to transition periods such

as China is passing through under the influence of modern ideas, and even of the moral anarchy provoked in certain cases by the sudden abandonment of the family system.

Future Prospects

The essential condition for any improvement in labour conditions, both in the old industry and in modern industry alike, is that the congestion in industrial centres should to some extent be relieved. There is more labour than there is work to do. Heads of undertakings or their representatives are beset on all sides with requests for employment. From what has been said above, it is clear that they have a moral duty to the members of their own families, and whatever their occupational capacities, they are compelled to engage them. In addition, there are persons in distress, known or unknown to the heads of the undertakings, who offer themselves for any work at any wage, and who are engaged without there being any real need of their services. Undertakings are therefore cumbered up, not only with unsuitable workers, but with far more labour than is required for the work to be done. In such conditions any rational organisation of industrial undertakings becomes impossible. The work is done badly and seldom results in any profit for proprietors or managers, although China has often been called " the paradise of employers ". Moreover, the same reasons which operate in connection with the recruitment of labour, make the dismissal of a worker practically impossible. An undertaking which has only enough work for half its workers will none the less continue to employ them all, in pursuance of the old Chinese maxim that no one is to be deprived of his bowl of rice. There is a tacit understanding between the workers to divide up the work. All sorts of shifts are resorted to by all the workers to spin out the work as far as possible, and so great is the force of custom that the employer will never attempt to resist them.

The effect of the labour surplus is that no appreciable improvement in the workers' conditions is possible unless it be accompanied by an increase in output. This is the crux of the whole matter. It is beyond doubt that properly trained workers, better fed and better housed, assured of their future and working under better conditions of hygiene and safety, would work harder and better. If individual output were higher, fewer workers would be necessary

for any given task, and the sacrifices made by the employers would to a large extent be balanced by the increase in their profits. But if at the same time the total volume of business of the undertaking does not increase, part of the labour employed will become superfluous, and it has just been seen that Chinese custom is opposed to the dismissal of workers when there is no certainty that they will find a living elsewhere.

If the total volume of business is to be increased, two conditions are necessary; first, the certainty of finding markets for this extra production, and secondly, the material means of extending existing undertakings or creating new ones. The general need for manufactured articles throughout the country is so great that the question of markets hardly arises in normal periods, although it must be to some extent dependent on the creation of an adequate system of communications, which at present does not exist. Even in the disturbed conditions which have prevailed in China for some years, the difficulties of finding a market are considerably less than might at first sight be imagined.

On the other hand, the organisation of industry in China is faced with various difficulties which immediately affect its development. The most important difficulty is the lack or the improper utilisation of capital. China, which is rich in raw materials and in labour, has never hitherto been rich in liquid capital. The primary cause of this was the distribution, or rather, minute fragmentation, of the land under the Chu dynasty, ten centuries B.C., which made it impossible to amass those fortunes in land the income from which, in western countries, allowed of the constitution of the necessary working capital for the development of industrial undertakings. Another reason would appear to be the superabundance of middlemen, which is felt in China as in all overpopulated countries. The profits made in the transfer of commodities from producer to consumer are divided between a large number of persons, all of whom find it only just possible to live, and are unable to build up any reserves. To this may be added the fact that in old China a display of wealth was considered bad form, except when it was the result of a dignity conferred by the emperor. It was always bad policy for a wealthy Chinaman to appear richer than the magistrate of his district *(Ts -Hsi n)*. Certain forms of the parade of wealth were even forbidden for him. Thus, the number of palanquin bearers he might have was regulated in detail, and also the style of decoration on the chair, mere private individuals having to take a rank below that of the *Tsi-Hsien*.

Further, the magistrate assessed the taxes among those he governed, and there was no fixed rule for this assessment except the rules for the land tax, which were themselves extremely vague, and varied for different localities and persons. Thus, for fear of excessive taxation, the well-to-do Chinaman was led to hide his wealth as far as possible.

The scarcity of capital and the insecurity attending its display explain the high rate of interest demanded by investors, very often 25 and 30 per cent. In this respect there has been little change in China in recent years. It is true that the parade of wealth is no longer forbidden by law, but in practice money is hidden as before, perhaps more so because of the civil war and the financial exactions of the rival generals. It is becoming common practice to send capital to the territories administered by foreign powers, in particular Tientsin, Shanghai, and Hong Kong.

In such circumstances it is difficult for Chinese industry to find the financial support necessary to the development of undertakings. When it does find it, it finds it under conditions highly dangerous to their proper operation. In the case of loans upon bond, the rate of interest is so high that the profits on the undertaking hardly allow of payment. In the case of joint-stock companies, the shareholders often neglect the building up of a reserve fund, and demand the distribution of all profits in such a way as to withdraw the amount of the capital which they have invested, as soon as possible, in the form of dividends. Thus, in the event of a slump, the undertaking is in serious danger, and may even cease to exist for lack of the necessary working capital.

All these considerations hold good for both small-scale and large-scale industry in China. There is an additional difficulty in large-scale industry, which is the lack of competent managers. Although the technical staff is, as a rule, competent, the administrative staff is too often the reverse. The manager of a joint-stock company, except when the shareholders are members of his own family, considers himself not so much the trustee of the various private interests concerned in the undertaking as the actual proprietor of the undertaking. The usual consequence is that an imprudent policy is pursued, sometimes even amounting to malpractice.

Finally, it is beyond doubt that the development of modern industry in China is hindered by the existing customs system, which favours foreign imports and make it impossible to protect the

young national industries. If the resolutions adopted by the Peking Customs Conference of 1925-1926 are carried into effect, this situation will be changed from the beginning of 1929 onwards.

Failing the development of Chinese industries, it may be asked whether there is any prospect of the extension of foreign undertakings in China. Certain factors referred to above, in particular those concerning the unreasonable demands of capitalist and the adminitration of undertakings, are negligible when foreign undertakings are under consideration. But there is another difficulty namely, the opposition of the Chinese authorities, both central and provincial, to any extension of capital belonging to nationals of certain foreign Powers, so long as such Powers continue to benefit by the system of extra-territoriality. Nationals of these Powers are not subject to the jurisdiction of the Chinese courts when actions are brought against them, and are thus, in practice, free from any control by the national authorities; since their immunity necessarily extends to any undertaking which is under their management, a situation is created which is prejudicial to Chinese manufacturers. It is true that the establishment of foreign undertakings in the concessious could perfectly well continue (such a step has even been begun by many Chinese undertakings), but the available territory of the concessions cannot be extended. In fact, many of these concessions are, and will remain, solely residential quarters, The only concessions which would appear likely to develop industrially in future are those of Shanghai, and principally the International Concession. The extent to which foreign and Chinese manufacturers in the concessions are favoured in comparison with manufacturers in the rest of China is not clearly defined. It does not howerer appear that Chinese manufacturers established on the borders of, e. g., the Shanghai Settlement, have ever complained of the competition of manufacturers in the Settlement.

The labour surplus in the industrial centres is due mainly to the exodus from the country to the towns. This persistent exodus is due to the fact that the land is less and less able to support those who cultivate it, a situation which becomes even more acute after any prolonged period of drought or flood. The question arises as to the possibility of checking this exodus, and even of starting a movement for a return to the land, which would help to relieve congestion in the industrial centres, and as a result would improve labour conditions among the workers remaining there. For this purpose a comprehensive programme of agricultural production

must be drawn up. The Chinese peasant, who is an excellent gardener and conscientiously utilises the smallest plots of land at his disposal, is nevertheless ignorant of the elementary rules of scientific agriculture. The rotation of crops, the choice of manures, the treatment of infertile land, the value of forests as a governing factor of the humidity necessary for cultivation, are unknown to him. Of all problems the problem of reafforestation is the most urgent. As a result of the systematic destruction of the forests, the melting snow and the summer rains cause frequent floods, particularly in the north and centre. The loss of the forests also causes prolonged periods of drought. In either case the harvests are lost. The land becomes more and more sterile, and the peasant emigrates to the industrial centres in the hope of finding there the pittance for himself and his family which even the most arduous toil in the country fails to give him.

Efforts have been made to remedy this state of affairs. The most fruitful educational work in this connection so far accomplished would appear to be that done by the Agricultural Department of the University of the South-East at Nankin, which is in the vanguard of the new movement in its distribution of seeds and manure and its equipment of model agricultural centres. It has recently established experimental fields for the cultivation of cotton in the valley of the Yangtse-Kiang and the province of Honan. During 1926 the Department distributed about 50,000 catties[1] of grain to 800 families. Lectures have also been given to agriculturists and have proved successful[2].

Similarly, the Pekin association for the study of agriculture and industry, which was founded in 1908 under the Empire, has endeavoured to improve silk cultivation by creating a special school near Peking[3]. Committees have also been set up in certain provinces for the development of agriculture and forestry, the latest of these being that at Kiangsu, instituted in March 1926. In Chekiang province the civil Governor issued a series of regulations at the beginning of 1926[4] to facilitate the breeding of silkworms, whilst the authorities of the Suyan[5] district, on the borders of Mongolia, organised an agricultural exhibition from 1 to 7 October 1925.

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[1] 1 catty = about $1^1/_3$ lbs.
[2] *Chinese Economic Bulletin*, 14 April 1926.
[3] *Idem*, 22 May 1926.
[4] *Idem*, 13 March 1926.
[5] *Idem*, 24 Oct. 1925.

As regards forestry, the most useful measure has been the creation of municipal forests, of which perhaps the best example is that of Chinyuan, a district of the Province of Chansi[1]. The forests are under the supervision of delegates chosen partly by the population and partly by the district authorities; tree-felling without the authority of these delegates is prohibited and any breach of this rule severely punished.

All this work needs to be developed and intensified by methods such as the classification of land, reconstruction of forests, development of stock breeding (at the present moment the breeding of draught animals is entirely inadequate for the needs of the country), introduction of the system of the rotation of crops, popularisation of the use of chemical manures, etc.

Country life is undoubtedly the kind best suited to the Chinese temperament. The peasant has nearly always owned his land and leaves it only in the last extremity. If the output of the land could be improved, not only would the peasant no longer think of leaving it but he would recall members of his family who have been compelled by distress to emigrate to the towns. It would appear to be in this direction that a solution for the over-population of the industrial centres should be sought.

Care must however be taken to prevent any such return to the land from aggravating the existing difficulties in the way of industrial development. Chinese economists realise that it is impossible for China to be exclusively agricultural. It is true that raw material is and will continue to be the main source of Chinese exports, but there still remain a large number of manufactured articles which it would be in the interests of China to produce herself.

None of the obstacles in the way of industrial development are insuperable. Some of them are even now being eliminated; to overcome others will necessitate moral evolution. Capitalists and managers of undertakings have a long apprenticeship before them, but there are enough examples to show that the necessary adaptation is taking place. When equilibrium is attained between supply and demand in the matter of labour, the old methods leading to overcrowding in the factories must give place to a more rational organisation of labour. Manufacturers will concern themselves with the output of their workers. They will not be slow to see that measures for the protection of the workers will be an important

[1] *Idem*, 28 April 1926.

factor in the prosperity of their undertakings. When they have better labour conditions and are assured of the future, the workers will settle down in their existing occupations. It will then be to the advantage of manufacturers to train skilled workers ; this will lead to improvement in the quality of the goods and will open up new markets both within the country and outside it. As they cease to have an inexhaustable reserve of labour, the manufacturers will find themselves compelled to enforce hygiene and safety measures. The cycle of improvement of labour conditions will thus be similar to that in western countries during the nineteenth century.

The resultant prosperity will allow of public utility work being undertaken on a large scale, the need for which — e.g. the construction of railways, control of waterways, and building of large arterial roads throughout the country — is particularly urgent in China. Despite the difficulties resulting from internal disorder, the recrudescence of which has been particularly evident in the last few years, considerable work has already been done in this direction ; e.g. an important section of the Longhai railway, from Haichow on the Yellow Sea to Shenchow near the frontier of Chansi, cutting transversely the two main lines from Peking to Hankow and Tientsin to Shanghai, has been completed. The construction of a road system is also proceeding apace under the direction of the National Movement for Good Roads in China and of its twenty-nine sections distributed throughout the country. Although this institution is no more than five years old it has already secured astonishing results, which have been particularly evident in the provinces of Kiangsu, Chansi, Chihli, and Shantung, each of which possesses several thousand miles of roads[1]. In other provinces progress has been slower, but is none the less real. Thus Chekiang, which a few months ago had only 250 miles of roads, recently completed the construction of great arterial roads for motor traffic (namely, those between Hanghsien and Yuchang, Yuchang and Wuhung, Hanshsien and Fuyang, and Siaoshan and Shaoting) with a regular service of motor vehicles[2]. A few months ago the province of Kiangsi, which was one of the most backward from the point of view of roads, created a special office for the construction of large arterial roads, with agencies in all districts for the purpose of carrying out the preliminary studies[3]

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[1] *Chinese Economic Bulletin*, 7 Oct. 1926.
[2] *Idem*, 10 July 1926.
[3] *Idem*, 10 April 1926.

All this goes to show the great interest taken in China in the development of means of communication. In addition to the facilities afforded for the transport of goods (which, save for the waterways, are at present so deficient), these new roads will in turn exercise a direct influence on the distribution of both the agricultural and the industrial population of the country. In particular, the attempts to improve the fertility[1] of the hitherto unproductive land in the north-west can be carried on more efficiently, thus increasing the productive capacity of the country. All these facts go to show that, far from being paralysed by the successive internal disputes since the establishment of the Republic, the economic life of China continues to develop. After a comparatively long period of calm this progress will clearly be more rapid.

Pending the full agricultural and industrial development of China, it may be asked what measures should be taken to improve the condition of the workers.

As regards agriculture, it has already been shown in the course of the discussion that there is no agricultural proletariat. The soil is cultivated by landowners or tenants, and cases are rare in which peasants employ workers engaged for a long or short period. In these rare cases the workers are treated on a basis of complete equality and enjoy the same conditions of board and lodging. Their wages consequently depend directly on the circumstances of the employer, and there is therefore no special system which can be recommended in this connection.

In small-scale industry it has been shown, by description of various typical undertakings, that the chief desideratum is improved hygiene. Without waiting for the time when improved industrial organisation shall allow of a complete change in methods of work, certain health measures are immediately feasible which would prove as profitable to the employers as to the workers. It would be possible in many cases, without great expense, to secure clean, better ventilated, and better lighted workshops. Moreover, any expenditure would soon be compensated by the improved quality of the work and by an increase in production, since there would be fewer cases of sick leave and less time lost in the workshop[2]. The propaganda work which the private societies might with advantage undertake in this connection should be carried on with employers

[1] *Idem*, 19 June 1926.

[2] T. C. Maitland : " Health and Industrial Conditions in China ", in *China Medical Journal*, Dec. 1925.

individually, and the practical results obtained should be published broadcast by way of example. Further, it would be comparatively easy to make the employers understand that better living conditions for the workers would produce even greater results. The work involved would be long, varying according to the locality and the persons dealt with, and it would be impossible to crystallise it into any administrative regulation. As has already been seen, the Central Government has not attempted to do so.

In large-scale industry the Regulations of 29 March 1923 should be enforced with increasing strictness. Certain of their provisions, such as the prohibition of night work for women workers, can probably have no effect until China has attained a certain degree of industrial prosperity. Others, such as the minimum age for employment, should go hand in hand with the organisation of elementary education, which is itself conditioned by the credits at the disposal of the Government. It will be the business of the inspectors recently appointed by the Central Government, and of the heads of the industrial offices of the provincial governments, to ascertain to what extent the Regulations can be sucessively enforced and to secure such enforcement in practice.

Collective Labour Agreements in Italian Agriculture : II

The first part of this article[1] *gave some statistics of farming in Italy and a general survey of the various types of agricultural undertakings and of the characteristics of the different categories of workers employed on them, followed by a discussion of the legal character of the various forms of contract, their history and development, and an account of the provisions adopted for ensuring observance of the terms of agreements.*

The second and concluding part of the article is devoted to a study of the contents of agreements; the following questions dealt with by them, often in much detail, are examined in turn : placing of labour, hours of work, work of women, children, and old men, wages, and conditions of share-farming. Taken as a whole, the detailed precision and broad scope of these agreements combine to make of them the framework of a new code of law regulating the relations between employer and employed.

The Provisions of Agreements

The Placing of Labour

THE effective enforcement of collective agreements in agriculture introduces a serious difficulty, namely, the placing of labour. The history of this question is particularly interesting in Italian agriculture in view of the positive and active part assumed by the workers' organisations. The sketch given in the following paragraphs shows the nature of the claims set forth at various times by the workers. These claims sometimes went far. Though the principle was never stated in so many words, yet, in fact, the workers were demanding the management of the labour supply of farming just as the employers claimed the technical management of cultivation. No doubt the great evil of rural unemployment was the impelling motive, and gave

[1] *International Labour Review*, Vol. XIV, No. 5, Nov. 1926, pp. 660-685.

force to the workers' demands. But the regulation of labour supply by a body other than the authoritative head of the farm is a sufficiently novel idea : that such a body or bodies should be responsible workers' organisations opens up a conception of collective bargaining wider than that usually adopted.

At first it was the early organisations — the leagues of land workers — which dealt with the placing of labour. It was a task which naturally fell to their share, since the non-existence of employers' organisations made the formation of any kind of joint employment institution inconceivable. As the workers' leagues were the only kind of organisation actually in being, this point was unlikely to give rise to any difficulty. Later on, when the employers in their turn began to organise, and when other associations — Catholic and Republican — were founded alongside of the leagues affiliated to the National Federation of Land Workers, there was no longer any point in leaving each of the workers' organisations to place its own members, and the system became indeed frankly impossible.

At this stage joint employment exchanges were set up in the various communes. They were managed by a board of representatives of employers and workers, and their business was to receive and register applications for work and offers of employment, to facilitate the placing of the unemployed, and to maintain relations with the exchanges in neighbouring communes with a view to promoting equilibrium on the labour market by interchange of applicants and offers.

There was considerable discussion of the subject in the workers' organisations affiliated to the National Federation of Land Workers. Opinions differed as to whether they should support the system of joint employment exchanges or whether it was not preferable for the workers' organisations to keep their own exchanges[1]. Some representatives of organisations held that placing was an inseparable element in the whole activity of a union, so that it was essentially the business of the union to dispose of its members on the basis of the agreements concluded by it ; in their view, in districts where there were several workers' organisations, exchanges worked jointly by these various organisations, but with no intervention by employers, might be set up if advisable.

[1] The question was discussed at length by the National Committee of the Federation, meeting at Milan on 12, 13, and 14 February 1921.

Others, on the contrary, held that placing was not such an essential activity of a union that the employers could not be allowed the right to ensure the normal working of their exploitations by exercising some control of the labour market.

At bottom, the question was economic rather than theoretical. The representatives of regions where unemployment was rife favoured a monoply of placing, so that the workers' organisations might find employment for the largest possible number of workers ; while the representatives of regions with little unemployment could more easily give prior consideration to the needs of exploitations. This duality of interests was incompatible with the adoption of a single policy : the organisations of Romagna — in particular those of the provinces of Bologna and Ferrara — wished to continue to have a monopoly of placing, while all the others were ready to collaborate in the work of joint exchanges.

When the first tentative period in the existence of the unions was over, legislative measures for the placing of agricultural labour were taken in hand. The first was a Decree of 17 November 1918, No. 1,911[1]. Section 1 of this Decree provided that " a state contribution may be granted to employment exchanges set up by the provincial or communal administrative authorities ; or set up by mutual agreement between employers' and workers' organisations ; or depending on a workers' organisation and recognised by agreements, or even only in fact, by the employers' organisation, or *vice versa* ; or founded by charitable institutions or other corporations. " Each exchange (except those worked by employers or workers alone) was to have a committee composed of four to eight members, half representing the workers, in addition to a chairman (section 5). The chairman was nominated by agreement between the officers of the Permanent Labour Committee[2]. The representatives of the employers and workers were nominated by their respective organisations in accordance with the regulations of the exchange. If the organisations failed to nominate their representatives within the prescribed time limit, the nominations were made by the officers of the Permanent Labour Committee.

[1] *Gazzetta Ufficiale*, 9 Dec. 1918, No. 298.

[2] This was an advisory body (no longer existing) for labour questions, attached to the Ministry of Labour. It was composed of representatives of the workers, the employers, and the various Ministries concerned. It was the administrative organ of the Superior Labour Council.

The employment exchanges set up or registered under this Decree took no responsibility for the due carrying out of labour agreements concluded through them (section 7). Placing could not however be effected on less favourable conditions than those fixed by the agreements.

In case of collective disputes over the conclusion of labour agreements (section 8), the exchanges were to suspend their function of intermediary between the parties during the whole period of the dispute.

Other sections provided for the formation of a trade committee in communes where there was no employment exchange, of a provincial committee for vocational guidance at the seat of each prefecture, and of a central employment exchange attached to the Ministry of Labour.

The election of the members of the joint exchanges was dealt with by a subsequent Decree of 13 April 1919, No. 641[1], which provided for the preparation of electoral rolls of employers and workers qualified to elect the representatives of each class respectively.

These measures have since been repealed. Placing is now carried out by exchanges under the National Relief Institution (*Patronato nazionale*), a national federation recognised by a Ministerial Decree of 26 June 1925 which groups together all organisations providing help or relief for workers, such as emigration offices, employment exchanges, people's secretariats, poor relief organisations. This Institution works in close connection with the Fascist corporations.

It has been pointed out above that unemployment is one of the gravest concerns of the workers' organisations. It is in fact the open sore of certain regions of Italy, especially of Northern Italy. Not that there is any *permanent* disproportion between the density of the agricultural population and the needs of agriculture : there is equilibrium in periods of full activity. But it is seasonal unemployment which is the most intense. This is determined by the systems of cultivation in use : in winter and during part of the spring and autumn, it is impossible to place all the labour available in each district. The day labourers — the category most affected by seasonal unemployment — work for a variable number of days in the year : in the provinces

[1] *Gazzetta Ufficiale*, 10 May 1920, No. 112.

of the Middle Po Valley (Mantua, Cremona, Modena, Reggio, Parma, Piacenza, Brescia) it has been calculated that day labourers — men and women — work at least 180 to 220 days[1], but in the provinces of the Lower Po Valley (especially Ravenna, Ferrara, and Rovigo) the average falls to 120 or 130 days[2].

Several remedies were applied to cope with this state of affairs. First there were public works : draining marshy land, making roads and river embankments, etc. The workers considered that other measures were necessary : the adoption of a system of rotation of gangs, so as to ensure to each worker his fair share of the available work[3]; the payment, during periods of urgent work, of a wage enabling the worker to put something by for the months when there would be no work. This latter demand, however, involved a danger : the effect on the farmers of the increasing cost of labour was likely to be, and in fact was, a reaction against any increase in wages, in the form of a refusal to embark on part of such work as was not urgent or made no direct contribution to production. Thus the reduction in the number of days' work available balanced the increase in wages gained by the workers, and moreover some harm was done to the working of the farms and to agricultural production.

In order to limit the consequences of this restriction of the work to be done, the workers' organisations adopted the principle of the " minimum ration of labour ". The meaning of this was that each employer was obliged to employ a minimum number of workers proportional to the area of his farm, the rates being fixed in the collective agreements : for instance, one man or one woman for 4, 5, or 6 hectares, according to the average conditions of agricultural economy in the region and the nature of the farm in question. This measure was introduced in the province

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[1] Bonomi and Vezzani : *Il movimento proletario nel Mantovano* ; Milan, " Critica Sociale " Library, 1901. The figures given here really refer only to the province of Mantua, but they are also descriptive of the situation in the other provinces mentioned.

[2] Cf. *La disoccupazione nell' Emilia*, report of an enquiry carried out by the Società Umanitaria of Milan in 1906-1907.

[3] The system of rotation of gangs in periods when there is not enough work for all workers explains the earlier tendency of the workers' organisations to keep the great mass of land workers as mobile as possible, and to oppose any form of engagement tending to " fasten the man to the land ". At the 1903 Congress of the National Federation of Land Workers a resolution against metayage was adopted. There was always some feeling of distrust about the parcelling out of estates, which led to a multiplication of the number of small working farmers and roused fears of greater intensity of employment.

of Brescia in 1918[1], and in 1920 was applied almost everywhere that there was serious unemployment[2].

The " minimum ration of labour " gave rise to long discussions. Generally speaking, agricultural experts and economists have been of opinion that this measure endangers the economic equilibrium of agricultural undertakings, for there is a definite proportion between the quantity of labour to be employed and the quantity of capital sunk in the undertaking[3]. Dr. Fabio Luzzatto, professor of political economy in the Milan Agricultural College, in a survey of the collective agreements for agricultural labour for the year 1923-1924, wrote as follows on this subject[4] :

> It is easy to understand the origin of this measure — a surplus population and unemployment. But to say that the labour so employed contributes to more intensive methods of cultivation and the improvement of the land does not seem accurate. To the present writer it seems, on the contrary, that the compulsory engagement of daily labour should figure in the accounts of the undertaking as charitable relief : it is a charge which goes against morals, since it is not spontaneous ; against justice, since it is not free ; against economic law, since it conflicts with the law of proportions when it involves the engagement of too many workers for the needs of the farm, the farmer having absolutely no discretion as to how many he will engage but having to accept the number imposed upon him.

It must be added that even among the leaders of the movement the " minimum ration of labour " had its adversaries, who were afraid that the fixing even of wide limits for the employment of labour would still condemn part of the workers to unemployment. In their opinion, every effort should be made to find work for all workers : but they held that the proper remedy was

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[1] It may be recalled that in the province of Mantua the " minimum ration of labour " clause was inserted, perhaps for the first time, in an agreement concluded in 1898. By the terms of this agreement, each employer undertook to engage for the whole year, not including days of bad weather, at least five workers per 100 *biolche* (33 hectares). A permanent committee, composed of employers and workers in equal numbers, was to see that new agreements were duly carried out. Cf. Bonomi and Vezzani : *op. cit.*, pp. 45-46.

[2] Cf. Ministero per il Lavoro e la Previdenza Sociale : *I concordati collettivi di lavoro stipulati dalla Federazione Nazionale dei Lavoratori della Terra nel 1920.* Rome, 1921.

[3] Cf. Arrigo Serpieri : " I nuovi orientamenti dei rapporti fra conduttori e lavoratori della terra ed i loro effetti sull' agricoltura ", in *Rivista del Diritto Agrario*, 1922, Nos. 3 and 4. Florence. See also an article by Prof. Masé-Dari on the " minimum ration of labour " in *Riforma Sociale*, Nos. 1-2, Jan.-Feb. 1926. Turin.

[4] F. Luzzatto : " Osservazioni sopra i concordati collettivi di lavoro agrario 1923-1924 ", in *Riforma Sociale*, Nos. 9-10, Sept.-Oct. 1924.

to secure as much land as possible and hand it over to the workers' organisations themselves to be exploited on the co-operative system.

The objections raised by agricultural experts and economists were met by the reply[1] that the minimum ration of labour did not in any way endanger the equilibrium of undertakings, provided, naturally, that it was applied within the limits of the average capacity of the undertakings in each agricultural region. It merely marks the level of labour to be engaged below which employers may not descend in order to avoid having to pay a certain sum in wages, with consequent damage to the workers and the community as a whole. It is possible that the minimum ration of labour may seem to weigh heavily on certain farms which are badly organised or less productive than others in the same region. But in this case its influence will be good, as it will encourage the inefficient farmer to improve his methods of exploitation. Further, especially at this period of difficulty in the food supply, the community as a whole cannot afford to be indulgent to farmers who have not the technical, financial, and moral qualifications to reach at least a normal productivity.

The labour leaders who are opposed to the minimum ration of labour are met by the objection that the direct exploitation of the land by the workers' organisations requires both considerable capital and a high level of capacity — a double condition which the workers do not always adequately satisfy[2]. Further, there can be no question of imposing on exploitations expenses out of all proportion to their average capacity, at the risk of increasing the cost of production and the prices of produce, or alternatively of causing a set-back in the systems of cultivation and in the level of production itself.

The " minimum ration " clause is still applied here and there, but it lost much of its value when the Fascist organisations became the only bodies of organised land workers. In a second phase of Fascist activity in the sphere of agricultural trade unionism,

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[1] Cf. O. Gorni : " Il carico minimo di mano d'opera in agricoltura ", in *Riforma Sociale*, Nos. 11-12, Nov.-Dec. 1924.

[2] In addition, co-operative cultivation cannot wholly eliminate unemployment. To do so would result in increasing general expenses to a point which must be fatal to the co-operative undertaking. This was plainly stated by the National Federation of Agricultural Co-operative Societies (Bologna) in its report at the end of the year 1920. Cf. Federazione Nazionale delle Cooperative Agricole : *Assemblea Generale dei Soci*, pp. 21-22 : Bologna, 1921.

however, the question has been the object of further negotiations and discussions between employers' and workers' organisations, especially in the provinces of Rovigo and Ferrara. At first there was a certain tendency towards maintaining the principle of compulsory employment by agricultural employers of a minimum number of workers, while at the same time modifying the form of this obligation. In 1923-1924 we find some collective agreements which guarantee each worker a minimum number of days' work in the year, while reserving to the employer the right to distribute these days over the different periods of the year according to the needs of his farm. In the province of Mantua, the minimum adopted was 250 days; in the province of Parma, a minimum of 155 days was fixed for the period 1 April to 11 November. Certain agreements concluded for the year 1925-1926 contain the " minimum ration " clause (e.g. in Ferrara, Padua, Mantua, Piacenza) on the basis of one man or woman worker for some specified unit of cultivated ground.

In certain places (the province of Modena, Ginosa in the province of Taranto) the question of the minimum ration of labour is in suspense. " It is hoped ", states the recently concluded Modena agreement[1], " that the employment exchanges and the joint committees which have to supervise the working of these exchanges, and to see that the conditions of employment agreed on are effectively observed, will succeed in solving the problem of unemployment. " If this hope were not fulfilled, it would obviously be necessary to provide for the employment of a minimum number of workers : this obligation is clearly mentioned in the Ginosa agreement[2].

In reality, therefore, the minimum ration of labour persists in existing agreements as a necessity imposed by the prevalence of unemployment.

Hours of Work

Before the creation of workers' organisations and the conclusion of agricultural agreements the question of hours of work was not raised. It was understood that every agricultural employer had the right to impose on his workers whatever timetable

[1] Cf. *Il Lavoro d'Italia*, 31 July 1926.
[2] *Idem*, 17 Sept. 1926.

suited him best, each worker being an isolated unit with no means of obtaining any limitation of hours.

Working hours were ordinarily from sunrise to sunset, interrupted by breaks varying in number and length according to the time of year : three in summer (the first of half an hour, between 8 and 9 a.m., for breakfast ; the second from midday to 2 p.m., for dinner ; the third, quite short, towards 5 or 6 p.m., for a snack); two in spring and autumn (the first at 9 a.m. for breakfast, the second of an hour or an hour and a half in the middle of the day for dinner) ; only one in the winter (an hour at 10 a.m. for a meal).

It is indisputable that a fixed timetable for agricultural work offers great difficulties by reason of the urgency of certain kinds of work and of the risk of damage to the crops by bad weather. None the less, the limitation of hours of work is indispensable, both for general reasons which have been set out over and over again, and also for a special reason which is of particular importance for Italy — the fact that where unemployment is most prevalent the limitation of hours of work tends to ensure work to a larger number of workers.

The National Federation of Land Workers had included the demand for the 8-hour day in its programme. And at a meeting between representatives of agricultural employers and workers held in Rome at the offices of the Permanent Labour Committee on 3 and 4 April 1919, a compact was signed by both parties, by the terms of which agreements relating to day labourers (men and women) were to include the 8-hour rule. Two reservations were admitted : (*a*) in case of urgent work and if there were no unemployed in the neghbourhood, the employer might require his staff to work overtime for a higher rate of payment : (*b*) the hour of starting work and the break or breaks were to be fixed by the employer, within the limits of the 8 hours, so as to obtain the best output.

The question of hours of work was studied by the Superior Labour Council, which in July 1919 approved a proposal for a Bill drafted and submitted by one of its members, Mr. Filippo Turati[1].

In the explanatory memorandum attached to the Bill, Mr. Turati[2] discussed hours of work in agriculture, and recognised

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[1] Cf. Filippo Turati : *L'orario di lavoro delle 8 ore.* Relazione e disegno di legge approvati dal Consiglio Superiore del Lavoro nel luglio 1919. Preface by Giuseppe Prato. Milan, Fratelli Treves.

[2] *Op. cit.*, pp. 65 *et seq.*

the need for a special Act on the subject applying to day labourers and permanent workers, with provision for exceptions imposed by technical and seasonal considerations. Section 2 of his Bill provided that " for agricultural undertakings, the clauses of the Act [concerning the application of a maximum of 8 hours of work per day or 48 hours per week] apply to day labourers and in general to wage earners. Until further notice the workers whose contracts give them part of the produce of the farm as payment are excluded from the operation of the Act[1]. " It was not possible, however, to lay the Bill before Parliament.

In 1923 the Government published a Legislative Decree[2] limiting the hours of work of workers and employees in industrial and commercial undertakings of all kinds. This Decree provides (section 4) that :

> In agricultural work, and in all other work where such action is necessary owing to technical or seasonal requirements, the 8-hour day or the 48-hour week mentioned in section 1 may be exceeded, provided that the average duration of work during a specified period shall not exceed the limits fixed by Royal Decree on the recommendation of the Minister of Labour and Social Welfare, after consultation with the other Ministers concerned and the Council of Ministers, or by an agreement concluded between the parties concerned.
>
> In urgent cases the authorisation for which the Minister of Labour and Social Welfare is responsible may be given provisionally by the labour inspector in charge of the district.

Some months later a Royal Decree[3] was issued approving the Regulations for the application to workers in agricultural undertakings of the Legislative Decree of 15 March 1923. The Legislative Decree and the Regulations cover the cultivation of land and woodland and the operations connected therewith, or supplementary or accessory thereto, such as the raising of plants, irrigation, the keeping, breeding, and management of stock (excluding the raising of cattle in a free state), the preparation, preserving, manufacture and transport of the products of agriculture, stock-breeding or forestry (section 2). The provisions

[1] There was some discussion of the question of extending the Eight-Hour Act to share-farmers themselves and to all cultivators of small family farms. But it was decided that this extension was impossible, for, over and above the special nature of these undertakings, enforcement of the provisions of the Act did not seem practicable.

[2] No. 692, dated 15 March 1923. INTERNATIONAL LABOUR OFFICE : *Legislative Series*, 1923, It. I.

[3] No. 1,956, dated 10 Sept. 1923. *Legislative Series*, 1923, It. 7 (B).

of the Legislative Decree apply only to day labourers and permanent workers (section 3). The following are not held to be hours of actual work : breaks, time spent in going to and coming from work[1], and time required for re-setting scythes[2], in default of any agreement to the contrary (section 4). The periods within which the average hours of work of 8 in the day and 48 in the week may be exceeded are not to exceed three months in the year. Except where agreements to the contrary have been concluded between the parties, hours of work are not to exceed 10 in the day or 60 in the week (section 5). When, owing to bad weather, it is not possible during the working day to work the normal working hours, the employer may make up during the week the time lost by increasing the hours of work on the following days up to a maximum of 10 per day, without paying any extra wage for this (section 6). When it is proposed by agreement between employers and workers to exceed the limit of 12 hours of overtime per week, authorisation to do so may be given for a period not exceeding nine consecutive weeks, provided that the average overtime during such period shall not exceed 12 hours per week (section 7).

The hours of work of workers employed in transport work, stable work, and the care of cattle are to be regulated in conformity with section 5 of the Regulations, by agreements between organisations of employers and workers, or in default of agreements by the provincial conciliation committees[3] (section 9).

If disputes arise between organisations of employers and workers, or between individual employers and workers, concerning the calculation of hours of work, the provincial conciliation committees may, at the request of one of the parties, intervene with a view to conciliation (section 10). An appeal against the measures taken by these committees may be made to the Minister of National Economy, but the appeal will not have suspensory effect (section 11).

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[1] By the terms of the latest agreements concluded, time spent in going to and coming from work must not be counted in working hours if the journey is not more than a certain distance, ordinarily 3 kilometres. If the journey is longer than the maximum so fixed, the time taken to cover the extra distance is considered actual work.

[2] Re-setting scythes, which is usually done with a hammer, takes about twenty minutes : it must be done once a day when cutting green crops and twice when cutting stubble.

[3] Constituted under section 10 of the Act of 7 April 1921, No. 407.

A recent Legislative Decree[1] concerning hours of work provides that " until further notice, and in spite of anything specified to the contrary in Legislative Decree No. 692 of 15 March 1923, or in labour agreements relating thereto, all industrial, commercial and agricultural undertakings are authorised to increase by one hour a day the hours of work of their workers and employees. "

The legal regulation of hours of work in Italian agriculture has given definite recognition and approval to the efforts of the agricultural organisations to secure a limitation of hours. It is not too much to say that from this point of view the agricultural workers have achieved a remarkable degree of success.

The first collective agreements concluded in the province of Mantua in 1901[2] contained clauses on hours of work. These were still merely tentative : work began at sunrise and ended almost everywhere at sunset, with certain breaks (three hours in all in summer, two hours in spring and autumn, an hour or an hour and a half in winter). The Castellucchio agreement, however, fixes (for part of the year) a more definite timetable : work is to stop at 4 p.m. in January, February, November and December ; at 6 p.m. during the period March to September ; the rest of the time work may go on until sunset.

A comparison of these agreements with those concluded in 1920[3] at once shows the considerable progress made by the workers' organisations in some twenty years. The 1920 agreements contained provision for one or other of three different systems :

(*a*) Maximum of 7 hours per day : day labourers in Mantua and Verona (5 or 6 hours in winter, 7 hours the rest of the year).

(*b*) Maximum of 8 hours : day labourers in Saluzzo, day labourers and wage earners in Novara, Cremona, Pavia, Mortara, Padua, Rovigo, Portogruaro, Vicenza, Ferrara, Forli, Modena, Piacenza. Most of the agreements provided for 6 hours in winter, 7 hours in March, April, September, and October, and 8 hours the rest of the year.

(*c*) More than 8 hours during certain months : Alessandria, Brescia, Milan, Bologna, Parma, Ravenna, Reggio Emilia. Most of the agreements fixed 6 or 7 hours in winter (except that for Reggio Emilia, which allowed 8 and even 9 hours), 8 or 9 hours in March, April, September, and October, and 9 or 10 hours the rest of the year.

As a rule, the time taken by the worker to go to his work and return from it was not included in the hours of work.

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[1] No. 1,096, dated 30 June 1926.

[2] Cf. BONOMI and VEZZANI : *op. cit.*, pp. 71 *et seq.*

[3] Cf. report of the Ministry of Labour and Social Welfare, cited above.

When overtime (at most 2 hours per day) was authorised extra wages were paid : for permanent workers, 1 lira per hour at Alessandria and 3.20 lire at Parma ; for day labourers, an increase of 50 per cent. per hour at Alessandria and Mantua, 40 per cent. at Novara, Saluzzo, and Pavia for " extraordinary " work[1], and 30 per cent. at Rovigo and Pavia for ordinary work. At Parma the increase was 10 per cent. for the first hour of overtime and 20 per cent. for the second. At Pavia overtime worked by permanent workers gave them the right to an equal number of hours of rest within the next fortnight.

The agricultural agreements concluded in 1923-1924[2] for the most part observe the principle of the 8-hour average, with the right for the employers, on the one hand, to exceed normal hours within the limits of the Regulations of 10 September 1923 on payment of a wage higher than the normal rate, and, on the other, for certain urgent work — e.g. harvesting green crops — to require time lost owing to bad weather to be made up by working overtime on the following days.

A single agreement, that for Verona, fixes a working day of less than 8 hours. The agreement for Tortona (province of Alessandria) fixes the limits for the period March to October at sunrise and sunset, with breaks varying from two and a half hours to four hours according to season ; for the other months the working day is fixed at 7 hours of actual work.

The agreements for 1925-1926 and those already concluded for 1926-1927 do not perceptibly modify this situation. In most cases there are three different arrangements of hours according to season : 7 hours in November, December, January, and February ; 8 hours in March, April, September, and October ; 9 hours in May, June, July, and August ; with of course the possibility of adding overtime. There are certain variants depending on the region and the nature of the exploitation. Thus the Brescia agreement (permanent workers, 1925-1926) fixes the following timetable : 6 hours in November, December, and January ; 8 hours in April and October ; 9 hours in August and September ; 10 hours in May, June, and July. The Pisa agreement (day labourers, 1925-1926) provides for an average of 8 hours, with a minimum of 7 and a maximum of 10 hours.

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[1] The agreements apply the term " extraordinary " to the heavier and more difficult jobs : reaping, threshing, spraying vines, etc.

[2] Cf. *Bollettino del Lavoro*, No. 1, Jan. 1924. Rome.

For special work (reaping and harvesting rice) the working day consists of 8 hours, both for workers living in the neighbourhood and for those who have come from a distance[1].

Over and above these hours, all workers can in future, under the Decree of 30 June 1926, be obliged to work for a ninth hour without overtime pay.

Lastly, there is a point which calls for special examination in agricultural agreements, namely, the question of public holidays and annual leave.

Sundays and official festivals are considered public holidays and are therefore rest days. The usual work done on these days (care of cattle, etc.) is not ordinarily paid at special rates, and is in any case reduced to a minimum. In return, the permanent workers, who alone have to do this work, are in certain districts entitled to a certain number of non-consecutive days of holiday. The 1920 agreements provided for a holiday of this kind at Alessandria (7 days), Cremona (10 days), and Pavia (15 days). In those of 1923-1924 a similar provision was more frequent : at Alessandria (20 days), Novara (8 days), Tortona (10 days), Vercelli (10 days for milkers, 8 for others), Bergamo (10 and 5 days respectively), Cremona (8 days), and Mortara (undetermined number of days).

Extraordinary work[2] done on public holidays entitles the worker to extra payment, consisting of a fixed amount per hour for permanent workers, and usually a percentage increase on normal hourly rates for day labourers.

Work of Women and Children

At the end of last century no age limit was yet fixed for the engagement of agricultural workers, whether men or women. The latter, too, could even be engaged during the latest stages of pregnancy and immediately after confinement.

Women and children are ordinarily employed on field work : weeding corn from the end of March to the end of April, weeding rice in May and June. The latter work is real torture. Women and children toil in the rice-field, up to their knees in water and bent double under the summer sun. They have to drink contaminated water, are exposed to the

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[1] This work is done by local labour, with the help, especially in the provinces of Novara, Milan, and Pavia, of immigrant workers, many of whom come from Emilia.

[2] I.e. work other than absolutely necessary care of cattle.

risk of malaria, have to walk eight or ten kilometres to reach the place of torture, and the same distance to return home in the evening. And all that for a starvation wage : children earn only 50 centesimi a day on the average, and the women who earn a lira are rare. It may be added that children barely 10 or 12 years old and women are employed on all kinds of agricultural work, except those which need great physical strength (handling sacks, ploughing) or are dangerous (breeding or using vicious animals)[1].

The creation of workers' organisations made it easier to regulate the employment of women and children. The legislature, until then silent before the reports of the physicians, was roused from its indifference, and passed the Act of 16 June 1907, No. 337, on work in rice-fields. Section 11 of this Act (afterwards section 82 of the codified text of the Health Acts approved by Royal Decree of 1 August 1907, No. 636[2]) provides that " the following may not be employed on weeding rice-fields : children under 14, and women during the last month of pregnancy and the first month after confinement. Children under 16 and women under 21 may not be employed on this work without a birth certificate. All immigrant workers employed on weeding must present a medical certificates from their commune of residence or origin, certifying that they are not suffering from any infectious disease. Pregnant women must hold a medical certificate stating the duration of their pregnancy. " Section 84 of the Act provides that " nursing mothers must be allowed the time necessary for feeding their children, without deducting the period of absence from the hours of work. "

But this Act applied only to rice-fields. The problem of the protection of women and children remained intact for all other forms of agricultural work. The solution was provided by collective agreements.

The report published by the Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs on the collective agreements concluded in 1920 by the National Federation of Land Workers contains some information on this subject.

The minimum age limit was fixed as follows :

(*a*) 14 years for boys and girls in the provinces of Alessandria, Novara, Cremona, Mantua, Pavia, Venice, Verona ;

(*b*) 14 years for boys and 15 years for girls in the provinces of Padua and Vicenza ;

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[1] Bonomi and Vezzani : *op. cit.* (1901), p. 40. The picture they give for the province of Mantua applied without change to all other parts of the country.

[2] *Gazzetta Ufficiale*, 26 Sept. 1907.

(*c*) 13 years for boys and 15 years for girls in the province of Brescia ;
(*d*) 13 years for day labourers and 15 years for permanent workers in the province of Milan ;
(*e*) 15 years in the province of Reggio Emilia.

Below these minimum limits, children could be employed on light work, for a rate of payment fixed in each case.

The agreement concluded in the province of Brescia stipulated that " women may be employed on work suited to their capacity and taking into special consideration their state of pregnancy or recent confinement, if any. "

In subsequent years the collective agreements continued to include special clauses on the employment of women and children. Thus in the agreements for permanent workers and day labourers concluded in 1923-1924 the following provisions are found[1] :

(*a*) In the provinces of Novara, Vercelli, and Pavia boys may not be engaged as permanent workers below the age of 14.
(*b*) In the province of Bergamo the minimum age limit for permanent workers is 16.
(*c*) In the province of Milan the limit is 13 years.

Below these limits children were employed, as previously, on light and non-dangerous work ; their wage varied with the work given them to do.

The agreements now in force have not perceptibly changed this situation. They contain, for instance, the following provisions :

(*a*) At Novara boys and girls may not be engaged as permanent workers below the age of 14.
(*b*) At Alessandria the age limit for permanent workers is 15 years.
(*c*) At Voghera the age limit for the admission of women to agricultural work as day labourers is 16 years.
(*d*) At Pola the age limit for the admission of children to agricultural work is 14 years.

There is now also a legal limit. A Royal Decree of 29 December 1925, No. 2,558[2], has in fact given effect to the Draft Convention concerning the age for admission of children to employment in agriculture adopted at the Third Session of the International Labour Conference (Geneva, October-November 1921).

By the terms of this Decree :

(1) Children under the age of 14 may not be employed or work in public or private agricultural undertakings, or in any branch thereof, save outside the hours fixed for school attendance ; and this

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[1] *Bollettino del Lavoro*, Jan. 1924.

[2] *Gazzetta Ufficiale*, 23 Feb. 1926, No. 44.

employment, if any, must not be such as to prejudice their attendance at school.

(2) For purposes of practical vocational instruction the periods and the hours of school attendance may be so arranged as to permit the employment of children on light agricultural work, and in particular on light work connected with the harvest, provided that such employment shall not reduce the total annual period of school attendance to less than eight months.

(3) The provisions of section (1) shall not apply to work done by children in technical schools, provided that such work is approved and supervised by public authority.

The Employment of Old Men

Before the creation of the workers' organisations there was no upper age limit for the employment of agricultural workers. The employers were free to fix wages as they pleased, and had therefore no reason to eliminate the older workers, as they could pay them at extremely low rates. But when the workers' organisations secured the fixing of wages by agreements, employers and workers easily agreed on the fixing of an upper age limit : the former in order to avoid paying their workers wages higher than their output justified, the latter principally in order to oust possible rivals, especially at periods of agricultural unrest. Both sides recognised the need for legislation making old-age and invalidity insurance compulsory. The Legislative Decree of 21 April 1919, No. 603[1], made such insurance compulsory for persons of both sexes between the ages of 15 and 65 years who work for hire in any of the following capacities : workers, learners, apprentices, attendants, assistants, clerks, overseers, and employees, in industry, commerce, and agriculture. This Legislative Decree was amended by the Royal Decree of 20 December 1923, No. 3,184[2], but the principle embodied in the 1919 Decree was not modified. The age of 65 years is usually fixed as the upper limit in collective agreements. Certain agreements, however — Novara (permanent workers, 1926-1927), Piacenza (day labourers, 1925-1926), and Padua (day labourers, 1925-1926) — allow the employment of workers of any age at reduced wages.

Old men are in fact employed both as farm servants and also as day labourers for light work, especially at periods when urgent work makes it necessary to employ a maximum of labour.

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[1] *Gazzetta Ufficiale*, 1 May 1919. The Regulations for the application of this Decree are dated 29 Feb. 1920 (*Gazzetta Ufficiale*, 20 March 1924, No. 74).

[2] *Gazzetta Ufficiale*, 16 Feb. 1924, No. 40.

Wages

An attempt to determine the fluctuations of real wages during the various periods which can be distinguished (before the creation of workers' organisations, the beginning of the present century, immediately before the war, and recent years) would be a complicated task leading too far afield. The present discussion will be limited to agreements relating to wages, with an enumeration of some typical examples among the more recent provisions to regulate the remuneration of the various categories of agricultural workers[1].

(a) Permanent Workers.

It has already been seen that the contract of the permanent worker affects only himself personally and not his whole family. Even if several members of the same family are permanently employed on the same farm, as frequently happens, the contract engages each of them individually. Those members of the family not specified in the contract, if they are fitted for agricultural work, have ordinarily a preferential right to employment, as " tied " workers, when the farm needs day labour.

The permanent worker lives with his family on the farm where he works. The employer must provide him with suitable accommodation, with the necessary outbuildings for keeping a pig and some fowls, sometimes even with an oven for baking bread, and a kitchen garden, the produce of which is the worker's own property. All these form part of the wage. The law provides that[2] " in the case of a house in the country used as a dwelling-house by persons who cultivate land belonging to the owner of the house, the latter is obliged to maintain the building in a habitable condition from

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[1] On the problem of wages during earlier periods cf. the following :

Ministero di Agricoltura, Industria e Commercio : *L'Inchiesta Jacini* (1882). Rome.

—— *I contratti agrari in Italia.* Rome, 1891.

Bonomi and Vezzani : *op. cit.*

L'Inchiesta parlamentare sulle condizioni dei contadini nelle provincie meridionali e nella Sicilia (1907-1911).

Ministero per il Lavoro e la Previdenza Sociale : *I concordati collettivi di lavoro stipulati dalla Federazione Nazionale dei Lavoratori della Terra nel 1920.* Rome, 1921.

Bollettino del Lavoro, No. 1, Jan. 1924 : " Concordati collettivi di lavoro per i salariati e gli avventizi in agricoltura " (1923-1924).

[2] Health Acts (codified text approved by Royal Decree of 1 Aug. 1907, No. 636), section 71.

the point of view of health. If the premises do not satisfy this condition the owner must carry out the necessary alterations and repairs. "

The employer also provides the permanent worker with certain products for his own consumption : corn, maize, rice, wine, firewood, milk, beans, oil, salt, hemp, flax, wool, etc., but preferably the produce of the farm.

In addition, the worker receives a variable sum per year in cash, usually paid monthly. Under the older contracts most of the wage was paid in kind. But with the gradual change in living conditions, payments in cash have increased.

Wages vary for the different categories of worker. The agreements fix in detail the sums in cash and the quantities in kind for each category : herdsmen, carters, stablemen, keepers, foremen, etc. These quantities also vary with the size of the farm and the scale of operations; in many cases the details are arranged by negotiation between employer and worker. Sometimes too they differ according as the worker is married or single ; for instance, for the workers in charge of calves in the province of Alessandria.

An increase in wages is sometimes granted for improvements made to the farm. Thus in the province of Ferrara the *boaria* contracts[1] provide for the taking of an inventory of stock at the date the *boaro* enters the farm ; if there is a subsequent increase, the *boaro* is entitled to a monthly addition to his wage of 8 lire per head of heavy cattle and 4 lire per calf.

The wages of children and old men are usually lower than the wages of adult males. The wage for children between 14 or 15 and 18 years (after which age they are treated as adults) is 50 per cent. of the wage for adults at Alessandria and 75 per cent. at Novara. At Brescia it is one-third for boys between 14 and 15, half for those between 15 and 16, and three-quarters for those between 16 and 18. Old men over 65 are paid a wage lower than the normal rate. At Novara the reduction is 20 per cent. between 65 and 70 years and 30 per cent. beyond 70. At Brescia the wage is fixed in each particular case by agreement with the employer and a supervisory committee.

In northern Italy permanent workers enjoy certain advantages, in addition to living accommodation with out-buildings, and over and above their wage properly so called.

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[1] Cf. the first part of this article in the *International Labour Review*, Vol. XIV, No. 5, Nov. 1926, pp. 666-667.

In the Lower Po Valley they are provided with a certain area of ground — ordinarily one-third of a hectare — which they have to cultivate on the share system in accordance with the instructions given by the employer. The latter provides the land tilled and manured ; the worker's family have to do all the work. The cost of seeds and artificial manure is borne by the two parties in the proportion fixed for the division of the proceeds. In most cases this proportion is one-third for the worker's family and two-thirds for the employer.

In the Upper Po Valley, where the silk industry flourishes, the worker is allowed to breed a certain number of silkworms, ordinarily one *oncia*[1] of seed (sometimes this is in addition to a plot of land for cultivation on the share system). The employer provides all the necessary implements, and mulberry leaves from the farm. If there are not enough of these, the cost of the leaves which have to be bought is equally divided. The cost of the seed is also equally divided, and so are the ultimate proceeds.

(*b*) *Day Labourers not living on the Farm.*

The wage of day labourers properly so called (*braccianti* or *avventizi*) is paid wholly or almost wholly in cash. Under some agreements, they are also given wine to be consumed on the spot, and for certain kinds of work (weeding and harvesting rice, reaping, etc.), in addition, either full board, or the midday meal and other refreshments.

Before the creation of workers' organisations the wage was usually fixed at so much a day (whence the term " day labourer "). Then, when hours of work were regulated, an hourly wage was fixed. Certain agreements, however, still fix daily wages, especially in southern Italy, as for instance those for Taranto and Foggia.

The wages of day labourers are fixed in accordance with various considerations.

They almost always vary with the season : lowest in winter, they reach their maximum in summer, when work is hardest and most urgent. The number of periods in the scale of payment varies in different regions.

The nature of the work done and of the crops is also taken into account in almost all agreements which fix wages. In most cases

[1] A local measure used for silkworm seed : it is equivalent to 30 grammes (about an ounce) and represents a production of cocoons varying from 50 to 70 kilogrammes.

the work is divided into two categories : ordinary work, not requiring any special capacity and neither very fatiguing nor particularly dangerous to health : and extraordinary work, more fatiguing and even dangerous (reaping and threshing corn, spraying vines, etc.). At Novara there is a double classification, for men (special category : reaping, harvesting, threshing, and drying rice ; first category : cutting green crops, reaping, harvesting, and threshing cereals, cleaning and weeding ditches ; second category : cutting, harvesting, and threshing rape, colza, and clover, cutting trees, cleaning stubble, etc. ; third category : all other kinds of work), and for women (special category : reaping, harvesting, threshing and drying rice ; first category : reaping, harvesting, and threshing corn, barley, oats, etc. ; second category : cultivation of maize ; third category : weeding, and all work not included in the other categories). At Brescia extraordinary work (reaping and threshing corn, cleaning ditches) is paid at an increase on the rate for ordinary work. At Reggio and Modena there is a special classification, distinguishing between ordinary farm wo k and land development work. At Catania (Sicily) the various kinds of work are minutely classified in various categories ; and even within each category wages vary according to the nature of the work. Special agreements have recently been concluded for harvesting rice in the regions where this crop is very important : Milan, Mortara (province cf Pavia), Ravenna, Rome (Pontine Marshes), etc. At Ravenna the wages vary according to the kind of work ; at Milan and Mortara they are paid in kind, but the workers can have the equivalent value in cash if they prefer[1].

The agreements sometimes also take the productivity of the farm into account. For this purpose a given region may be divided up into several zones, according to the nature cf the soil and the organisation of the farms. Thus the province of Brescia is divided into two zones : an eastern zone, less fertile, and a western zone, more productive because better irrigated. Two zones are also specified in the agreements for Reggio (Emilia) and Pisa.

Wages vary again according to the sex and age of the labourers. For children, women, and old men the rates are lower than for adult males. At Piacenza, for instance, the agreement classifies workers

[1] These two methods of fixing wages (according to the season and according to the kind of work done and the crops) are sometimes both included in the same agreement. There is then a classification of the different kinds of work to be done at each period of the agricultural year. Sometimes only the second of these methods is adopted (e.g. at Novara and Catania).

by age and sex. Men between 18 and 65 years get the full wage ; old men of sound health over 65 get 70 per cent. of the normal wage for adults. Women over 18 get 60 per cent. of the men's wage, and boys between 15 and 18 get 50 per cent. Partially incapacitated men and women receive a wage which is fixed in each case by the communal joint committees.

The Regulations concerning hours of work and the agreements provide for the payment of special rates for overtime and for work done on public holidays or at night. At Novara overtime is paid at an increase of 20 per cent. on the normal rate (10 per cent. if there is a shortage of labour). At Brescia special rates are fixed for overtime and public holidays. At Pola (Istria) the increase is 20 per cent. for the first two hours of overtime, 30 per cent. for subsequent hours, and 75 per cent. for night work.

In northern Italy certain agreements, in particular in the provinces suffering from unemployment, fix different rates according as the workers are or are not guaranteed a minimum quantity of employment. At Parma, in particular, workers guaranteed a minimum of 2,000 hours a year are paid 2 to 2.10 lire an hour, while others are paid 2.20 to 2.30 lire. At Padua workers guaranteed a minimum of 230 days' work a year are paid 1.35 lire per hour, and others 1.50 lire.

(*c*) *Day Labourers living on the Farm (" Tied " Workers).*

It has already been seen that the " tied " workers (*obbligati*) are workers housed by the farmer, guaranteed employment as long as there is any work to be done, and bound in their turn to remain at the farmer's disposal all the year round. Those members of the permanent workers' families who are fitted for agricultural work are often attached to the farm as " tied " workers.

The conditions granted to this category of workers are as follows:

(*a*) housing either free or on favourable terms, with a small kitchen-garden, the produce of which belongs to the worker ;

(*b*) the right to keep a pig or some fowls ;

(*c*) the right to cultivate a plot of ground on the share system, or to breed a certain quantity of silkworms ;

(*d*) an hourly wage fixed by contract for the work given them to do.

The wage of the " tied " worker is always lower than that of the day labourer not living on the farm. At Brescia the difference is at least 10 centesimi per hour ; at Vicenza it is as much as 20 centesimi. The other agreements do not fix much wider differences.

Collective Agreements for Share-Farming.

The metayage or share-farming contract is the most widespread of all the forms of partition of ownership of land and of labour between landlord and tenant-farmer. The movement among share-farmers to organise themselves was later in date than that among employed workers on the land : in fact, it was not of any importance until after the war. Moreover, before the war a certain distrust was exhibited by organisations of employed agricultural workers towards the whole system of share-farming. At the 1903 congress of the National Federation of Land Workers a resolution condemning share-farming was accepted. Nevertheless, share-farming fully maintained itself throughout central and northern Italy. In the end it was realised that it corresponded to a real need and the trade union organisations of agricultural workers began to take an interest, which was not purely negative, in the whole system.

The share-farmers themselves after the war entered on a considerable movement for obtaining satisfaction of their demands and grievances. These may be set forth roughly as follows :

(*a*) The period of the share-farming contract should be at least three years : any shorter period deprives the share-farmer of his just share in the profit out of the improvements which he puts into the soil.

(*b*) The share-farmer should engage to supply the labour of all the members of his family, but if such labour does not suffice to cultivate the holding half the expense of hired labour should fall on the landlord.

(*c*) The landlord should not have the exclusive control of the cultivation of the holding ; the share-farmer himself should have a certain right of initiative and a certain responsibility.

(*d*) The halving, whether of costs of production or of the reward from production, should not be considered final or irrevocable. For instance, the cost of soil improvement operating over a number of years should certainly not be halved by the share-farmer. And, again, the receipt of half of certain industrial crops should not be considered a sufficient satisfaction for the amount of labour which such crops ordinarily require.

Not all these demands have been satisfied in the series of collective agreements concluded between landlords' and share-farmers' organisations in recent years. There was, indeed, a brief period

during which the share-farmers made a good deal of headway with their demands, but, as will be seen from the following paragraphs, some of the more important claims have been disregarded in modern agreements. Illustrations are here drawn from the agreements operative in Lombardy[1], Venetia[2], Emilia[3], the Marches[4], Umbria[5], and Tuscany[6].

(*a*) *Duration of Agreements.* In Lombardy, Emilia (Bologna), and the Marches, agreements last for one year; in Tuscany for three years; in Venetia for six years.

(*b*) *Labour.* In Lombardy in all districts the share-farmer engages to use the labour of all the members of his family. In Venetia the share-farmer must pay for any other necessary labour. In Emilia the exact operations to be performed by the share-farmer are described in detail and the period within which they must be done. Should the share-farmer not carry them out, or delay to carry them out, the landlord can have them executed by hired labour at the expense of the share-farmer. In the Marches the expense of hired labour is entirely at the charge of the share-farmer, except that the hire of threshing machinery (and the cost of its fuel) is paid by the landlord. In Umbria the share-farmer is responsible for all the normal work of the farm. In Tuscany, it is stated that the share-farmer need use on the farm only the labour of those members of his family who actually reside in his dwelling, and, with the consent of the landlord, of any servant employed by him. Arrangements must be made so that the size of the resident family conforms to the amount of work which is to be carried out.

(*c*) *Control and Direction of the Farm.* In all regions the landlord has the general control of the system of cultivation to be pursued. In Lombardy certain principles are laid down in the contract to which cultivation must conform. In Emilia the landlord is under the obligation to supply a holding which is capable of proper

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[1] *Contratto colonico mezzadrile per la provincia di Bergamo* (not dated, but evidently concluded in 1923).

[2] Agreement for Verona (1923): *Capitolato di mezzadria consedato, presso l'Ufficio provinciale del Lavoro, fra la Federazione sindacati agricoltori, la Federazione prov. piccoli proprietari e le Lighe dei mezzadri aderenti all'Unione del Lavoro, la Fed. prov. dei Sindacati nazionali fascisti lavoratori agricoli.*

[3] Agreement for Bologna between *la Federazione provinciale dei sindacati degli agricoltori, la Federazione provinciale dei sindacati dei coloni,* and *la Federazione provinciale delle fratellanze coloniche* of Bologna.

[4] Agreement adopted by the Fascist organisations of the province of Ascoli Piceno.

[5] Share-farming agreement for the province of Perugia.

[6] Agreement concluded on 1 March 1923 between the *Associazione agraria toscana* and the *Confederazione delle corporazioni sindacali nazionali.*

cultivation. Should he initiate any radical change in the farming system the share-farmer can go to a special arbitration committee if he thinks his interests have thereby been prejudiced. In the Marches, it is stated that the landlord must carry on farming in conformity with modern principles of agriculture. In Umbria, the farm must be properly organised and equipped with proper appliances, so that a rational exploitation of the soil can be carried on.

(*d*) *Division of Costs of Production and of Reward from Farming.* As is natural, the provisions laid down on this point are elaborate : only a portion of them can be summed up here. The principle of division into two equal parts is in general maintained. In Venetia the share-farmer is not responsible for his whole half of costs on soil which is especially poor; there is freedom to allocate responsibility differently in special clauses relating to such areas. In Emilia all machinery driven by mechanical force is furnished by the landlord, but damage caused to such machinery must be made good by the share-farmer ; the cost and maintenance of hand machinery is shared between the two parties, tools are wholly supplied by the share-farmer ; the cost of hired machinery is shared between the two parties. The choice of the machinery to be used lies wholly with the landlord. The cost of stock is divided between landlord and share-farmer, the landlord paying to the share-farmer, each year, 3 per cent. on the value of the stock belonging to the share-farmer. Should the share-farmer not be in a position to supply stock the landlord will supply it for him, but in that case the share-farmer pays 3 per cent. on the value of half the stock. Other costs of production are divided equally, but the landlord must advance, without interest, such current cash as is necessary for cultivation purposes and even for the maintenance of the share-farmer and his family.

In the Marches the same sort of arrangement as to stocking obtains, but interest is charged at 4 per cent. In Tuscany the share-farmer appears to have a rather more independent position : he hires from the landlord both stock and machinery at a valuation made by two experts appointed by himself and his landlord. Special arrangements are made for larger machinery. The same system of valuation applies to stock at the end of the year and the rights of the two parties are adjusted by that means. The ordinary costs of cultivation are shared in equal parts. The landlord pays taxes and insurance charges.

The very difficult question of the division of the reward from farming is, on the whole, solved on the old principle of equal parts

to either party, but one or two other arrangements may be mentioned. In Emilia, if the productive capacity of the farm has been raised to a point superior to what is considered normal in the district (normal standards are settled by local agricultural committees), the share-farmer, by whose labour it is assumed such superior productive capacity has been obtained, has the right to a bonus on production which, together with his original portion, may run between a minimum of 21.2 and a maximum of 71.2 per cent. of the total value of the production of the farm. In the Marches also an arrangement favourable to the share-farmer obtains for the cultivation of vegetables, but on other grounds. Here the share-farmer gets an initial 10 per cent. of the produce before any division is made if the holding is not provided with machinery for the flow of irrigation water. In Tuscany, the share-holding, it is stated, must be of such a kind that it will supply the ordinary wants of the holder's family.

Description of special arrangements, which are dealt with in considerable detail by the share-farmers' contracts, could be greatly extended. Provisions are laid down for special harvests, like the olive harvest, and for special cultivations, like that of silkworms. Moreover, some attempt is made here and there to deal with the question of variation in the labour supply over and above the general rules mentioned above. In Emilia, should an alteration take place in the share-farmer's family during the year, such as decreases his capacity to supply labour, the landlord has the right to withdraw from the share-farmer's cultivation such areas as, in his opinion, must now cease to be properly cultivated and may make his own arrangements for the farming of this area during the remainder of the year.

It is, in fact, in these detailed arrangements covering all the contingencies which can normally arise that the value of the collective agreement lies. For it is just because the principle of simple division into two halves, whether of costs or of reward, is inadequate as a settlement of the rights and obligations of both parties, that a system of collective bargaining for the settlement of share-farming questions has arisen.

Conclusion

The reader of this general survey will by this time be able to form an opinion of the special importance which agricultural collective agreements have acquired in Italy.

Italy is in fact a country where the multiplicity of types of exploitation necessarily results in wide differences between the various agricultural contracts, and where the disparity between supply and demand places many workers — day labourers and others — in a precarious position which leads to continual unrest among them. It is therefore not surprising that the struggle between employers and workers should perhaps have been more obstinate in Italy than elsewhere. Its inevitable outcome was the conclusion of collective agreements, with periodic revision of their contents.

We are thus confronted with the phenomenon of a new code of law taking substance from the daily efforts of the two classes to find a formula which will satisfy both the needs of labour and the exigencies of production[1].

[1] Much of the documentation used in preparing the last part of this article has been communicated to the International Labour Office by the Italian Confederation of Agriculturists (*Confederazione degli Agricoltori*).

The Conciliation and Arbitration of Industrial Disputes:

III. Successful Measures applied in Various Countries

The first two parts of this study[1] *contained a general discussion of the nature of industrial unrest, and of the main methods for preventing and settling labour disputes, and an analysis of the machinery in operation in the various countries, together with an estimate of the inherent soundness or otherwise of the methods in use. The present (and concluding) article gives a brief description of those methods of conciliation and arbitration which would appear in practice to have given satisfactory results, and puts forward some reasons in support of the claim that these measures have in fact been successful.*

THE general analysis effected in the foregoing article leads naturally to the attempt now made to distinguish those measures of conciliation and arbitration which, in practice, would appear to have given good results. Here again it is necessary to point out that, in the first place, the field of selection is necessarily limited to those countries which have had a number of years' experience of a certain measure and which, moreover, publish adequate statistics reflecting to some extent the influence of that measure; and, in the second place, that even where adequate data exist it is difficult to tell whether the degree of success obtained is due to the inherent soundness of the measure itself or to some extraneous factor — the special ability of the men administering it or the appropriateness of the measure to the economic and psychological conditions of the particular country at that particular period. Under such circumstances anything in the nature of rigidly scientific discrimination is clearly impossible. All that it is proposed to do here is to consider in turn (1) measures for dealing with especial types of disputes, (2) measures for the prevention

[1] Cf. *International Labour Review*, Vol. XIV, Nos. 5 and 6, Nov.-Dec. 1926, pp. 640-659 and 833-860.

and settlement of disputes in general, and (3) the question of wage determination, giving in each case a brief description of what might be considered a reasonably successful measure actually in operation and advancing some reasons for considering such measure successful.

Measures for Dealing with Especial Types of Disputes

In the preceding analysis it was seen that a good case would appear to exist for employing some degree of compulsion in dealing with certain especial types of industrial disputes and, in particular, those occurring in unorganised trades and in public utilities.

Unorganised Trades

The outstanding examples of successful treatment of disputes in unorganised trades are the *wages boards* first set up in Victoria in 1896, now adopted in all of the Australian States, and the British *trade boards* set up by the Trade Boards Acts of 1909 and 1918[1].

The Australian wages boards are not confined to unorganised trades, as are the British trade boards, but the general method in both cases is the same. Representatives of employers and workers in the trade or industry[2] meet together with one or more impartial persons (appointed by the Government or chosen by agreement between the two parties), and by open discussion attempt to reach

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[1] For a description of the constitution and working of the Victoria wages boards and the British trade boards the following books and reports may be profitably consulted :

International Labour Review, Vol. X, Nos. 4, 5 and 6, Oct.-Dec. 1924 : " The Development of State Wage Regulation in Australia and New Zealand ", by D. McDaniel Sells.

National Industrial Conference Board : *Arbitration and Wage-Fixing in Australia.* Research Report No. 10, Oct. 1918.

Report of the Chief Inspector of Factories, Melbourne, on Anti-Strike Legislation in operation throughout the Australasian States and Recommendations regarding such legislation for Victoria. Melbourne, Govt. Printer, 1915.

Great Britain. Ministry of Labour : *Report to the Secretary of State for the Home Department on the Wages Board and Industrial Conciliation and Arbitration Acts of Australia and New Zealand.* By Ernest Aves. London, H.M. Stationery Office, 1908.

Minutes of Evidence taken before the Committee of Enquiry into the Working and Effects of the Trade Boards Acts (the Cave Committee), 1922.

Report to the Minister of Labour of the Committee appointed to enquire into the Working and Effects of the Trade Boards Acts. (The Cave Report.) Cmd. 1645. London, H.M. Stationery Office, 1922.

D. McDaniel Sells : *The British Trade Board System.* London, P. S. King, 1923.

[2] Where organisation is not sufficiently advanced, the task of selecting these representatives devolves upon the Government.

terms acceptable to both sides. When agreement cannot be arrived at, the impartial element on the board exercises the deciding influence. The decisions finally reached are enforceable at law.

The general objects of the trade boards may be gathered from the following authoritative quotation :

> The trade boards system should be directed first to giving protection to the workmen in each trade by securing to them at least a wage which approximates to the subsistence level in the place in which they live and which the trade can bear; and secondly, to use the machinery established for that purpose in encouraging the improvement of relations between employers and employed and the development of trade organisation[1].

It is generally acknowledged that, wherever wages or trade boards have been adopted, the two primary objects of this type of machinery — the elimination of sweating and the encouragement of organisation — have been effectively achieved. Their importance from the point of view of industrial peace, however, lies not so much in their immediate action but in their effect on the course of industrial relations in later years, and it is from this point of view as well as from the more obvious one of present performance that they require to be judged. As some indication of their apparent efficacy in reducing the number and severity of stoppages of work at a later stage of industrial development, the bare facts of the case in Victoria are enlightening.

The population of Victoria in 1921 was 1,531,529, the population of the whole of Australia being at that date 5,436,794. The number of breadwinners in Victoria in the same year amounted to 669,453, the total for all Australia being 2,316,589. From this it will be seen that Victoria accounts for approximately 28 per cent. of the total population of Australia, and over the same percentage of the number of breadwinners. During the period 1913-1923 the number of strikes and lockouts in Victoria amounted to 444, directly involving 95,731 workers, and resulting in the loss of 3,177,690 working days. The corresponding figures for the whole of Australia during that period were 4,510 strikes and lockouts, 948,104 workers directly involved, and 20,298,159 days lost. That is to say, during this period, instead of 28 per cent., less than 10 per cent. of the stoppages of work in the country occurred in Victoria ; only slightly more than 10 per cent. of the total number

[1] The Cave Report, p. 28.

of workers directly involved were in that State; and the number of days lost amounted to only about 15 per cent. of the total.

Needless to say, more should not be read into these figures than they are capable of bearing[1]. As they stand, however, they would seem to indicate that the early adoption of, and thirty years' adherence to, the wages board system has stood Victoria in good stead so far as industrial peace is concerned.

Confirmatory evidence is afforded by Tasmania, the only other Australian State having a pure wages board system. This State, although it has nearly four per cent. of the population and breadwinners in Australia, during the period 1913-23 had less than one and a half per cent. of the stoppages of work, little more than half of one per cent. of the workers affected, and slightly over one per cent. of the days lost in the whole of Australia.

Public Utilities

As a means of dealing with disputes in public utilities the Canadian method of *enquiry* has attracted wide attention and would appear to have achieved a considerable measure of success. Under the Industrial Disputes Investigation Act of 1907 disputes in public utilities, including mines, may be referred to enquiry by either party, by representatives of the public, or by the Minister for Labour. The Boards set up for this purpose are composed of one member appointed on the recommendation of the workpeople party to the dispute, one on the recommendation of the employers, and a third chosen by these two members, or by the Minister for Labour if no agreement on this score can be reached. The function of these Boards is first of all conciliation, but if conciliation fails the findings of the Board stating explicitly "what in the Board's opinion ought or ought not to be done by the respective parties concerned" are published for the information of the public. Stoppages of work in a dispute referred for investigation are prohibited during the period that the enquiry is being carried out[2].

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[1] In particular, allowance should be made for the disproportionate influence of mining disputes in New South Wales upon the figures for the Commonwealth as a whole. See *New South Wales Year Book*, 1923, pp. 398 *et seq.*

[2] For details of the Canadian system the following books and reports may be consulted:

Sir George Askwith: *Report on the Industrial Disputes Investigation Act of Canada.* December 1912.

National Industrial Conference Board: *The Canadian Industrial Disputes*

In all, 453 Boards have been constituted during the 18 years that the Act has been in existence. On an average approximately two stoppages a month have been averted or settled by this means, and in only two cases a year has failure been recorded. This constitutes on the whole a remarkable example of successful working. On the other hand, it is to be noted that during these 18 years 2,104 stoppages of work in all took place in Canada, and that even in those cases where, under the law, a Board might have been set up, in only 30 per cent. of the cases were Boards set up in actual fact. From these figures the general conclusion may be drawn that the Canadian method, while particularly successful in the disputes to which it is applied, works within a restricted field only. In dealing with disputes in the mining industry, for instance, it would seem to have proved far from effective. As part of a system, however, it is in many respects admirable, and its adoption in a more or less modified form in a number of other States[1] goes to confirm the general good opinion with which it is regarded in Canada itself.

Justiciable Disputes and Disputes of Great Social and Economic Importance

Outstanding examples of the successful treatment of the two remaining types of especial disputes indicated in the foregoing analysis — those arising out of a collective agreement and those of great social or economic importance — are not so readily distinguishable.

For dealing with the so-called justiciable disputes two methods may be indicated as having apparently given fairly satisfactory results — the *labour court*, such for instance as the one in existence in Norway[2], and the employment of *paid experts*, one appointed by each side, as in the Lancashire cotton trade[3].

Investigation Act. Research Report No. 5, April 1918.

UNITED STATES. BUREAU OF LABOUR STATISTICS: *Operation of the Industrial Disputes Investigation Act of Canada.* Bulletin No. 233, July 1918.

M. MACKINTOSH: *Government Intervention in Labour Disputes in Canada.* Bulletin No. 47 of the Departments of History and Political and Economic Science in Queen's University, Kingston, Ontario. 1924.

Cf. also: *Canadian Labour Gazette, passim*; Annual Reports of the Department of Labour; Periodic Reports on Strikes and Lockouts in Canada.

[1] Notably Colorado, Great Britain, the Netherlands, and South Africa.

[2] For details concerning the working of this court, cf. *International Labour Review*, Vol. II, No. 1, Jan. 1925: "Compulsory Arbitration in Norway", by Johan CASTBERG, pp. 22-25.

[3] For a detailed account of this machinery cf. Sidney and Beatrice WEBB: *Industrial Democracy*, pp. 195 *et seq.* and p. 236.

In Norway a stoppage of work is illegal as a means of settling a dispute between a trade union and an employer or employers' association concerning the validity, interpretation, or existence of a collective agreement. For the purpose of dealing with disputes of this type a labour court has been set up. This court consists of five members, of whom the chairman must have the qualifications prescribed for a judge of the Supreme Court, the remaining four members being appointed, two on the recommendation of the employers' organisations, and two on the recommendation of the workers' organisations. The decision of the majority of the court decides the case.

The method in operation in the Lancashire cotton trade in the event of a difference arising over any of the numerous points of detail, such as the working out of piece rates for a slightly different type of job, is to refer such difference to experts permanently retained by the employers' association and the trade union for this express purpose. It is stated that the two professional men seldom find any difficulty in agreeing upon an identical award.

It is possible that a combination of the labour-court and the paid-expert methods might be found to be on the whole the most satisfactory. With such a combination recourse would be had first of all to the machinery provided by the industry itself for dealing with such disputes. In the event of such recourse proving unavailing, it might be made permissible for either party to refer the matter to the industrial court (described at a later stage) for final adjudication.

Such a course, it may be pointed out, would be a form not of compulsory arbitration but simply of correct procedure. In the event of the matter at issue arising out of a genuine and important misunderstanding as to the meaning of a clause, there would be nothing to prevent the party which felt itself aggrieved from denouncing that clause and so bringing the whole question up anew as a general dispute. On the other hand, differences turning purely on interpretation could in this way find a ready and authoritative means of settlement.

Special machinery for dealing effectively with disputes of such importance as to threaten the economic life of the nation still waits to be devised. Longer experience of the German experiment with compulsory settlement may possibly yield results of value, but at the present stage no definite conclusions can be drawn. The method in force in the Netherlands of submitting such disputes

to enquiry may also prove of interest. The device favoured in some countries of setting up a special conciliation committee for the purpose of dealing with disputes of this type would not appear to have any particular recommendation in its favour. The frequent practice of some eminent political personage — the Minister of Labour, the Prime Minister, or the President — intervening as conciliator, although successful on certain occasions in bringing the dispute to a conclusion, is nevertheless held by many to be undesirable by reason of the fact that it is liable to interject political considerations into an industrial question. Altogether, those disputes which, while industrial in origin, are pronouncedly anti-social in their effect, present a problem which the modern democratic state has yet to solve.

Measures for Dealing with Disputes in General

Measures for dealing with disputes in general fall into two main groups : optional measures, and measures admitting of some degree of compulsion.

Optional Measures

Optional measures for the conciliation and arbitration of industrial disputes may aim primarily at the prevention of disputes before they have taken definite shape, or at the settlement of disputes whether before or after a stoppage of work has occurred.

Prevention.

Unquestionably for the prevention of disputes the most successful type of machinery is the *standing joint council.* Such councils may be non-governmental, as, for instance, in various of the United States clothing markets ; or quasi-governmental, as with the Whitley Councils. They may cover a single establishment, a district, the part or whole of a particular trade, or conceivably the entire range of industry, in a certain country. In every case the essential method is the same — the settlement of differences, before they have hardened into definite disputes, by frank and free discussion at frequent intervals between accredited representatives of the parties concerned.

The most prominent example of such councils working on a

purely optional basis is that of the Whitley Councils in Great Britain[1].

Whitley Councils take many forms, but essentially they are a means of bringing together in the establishment, in the different districts, and in the industry as a whole, accredited representatives of employers and workers — in the two last-named cases the officers of the organisations of employers and workers concerned — who by frequent meetings attempt to work out in agreement a solution of the problems affecting the establishment, district, or industry in question. The object of such Councils is primarily co-operation in industry and so, inferentially, the prevention rather than the settlement of industrial disputes. In point of fact a considerable number of the Councils set up have also made definite, and in some cases, elaborate, provision for the settlement of such disputes as may arise.

In attempting to estimate the degree of success attained by the Whitley Councils, it is necessary to consider first of all to what extent machinery of this type has been adopted in Great Britain.

The larger and more important industries have not set up Whitley Councils, either because they prefer the machinery already existing in the industry, or because they disapprove of the general principle of co-operation in industry which is at the base of these Councils. Even in those industries where the idea has been adopted it has been adopted only in part. The original plan of the Whitley Committee provided for the setting up of works councils in each undertaking and for district industrial councils, as well as for joint

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[1] For information concerning the establishment and working of these Councils the following books and reports are of interest:

Ministry of Labour: *Industrial Reports.*

No. 1. *Industrial Councils.* (The Whitley Report, together with the letter of the Minister of Labour explaining the Government's view of its proposals.)

No. 2. *Report of the Enquiry conducted by the Ministry of Labour into existing Works Committees.*

No. 3. *Industrial Councils and Trade Boards.* (Joint Memorandum of the Minister of Reconstruction and the Minister of Labour explaining the Government's view of the proposals of the second Whitley Report, together with the text of the Report.)

No. 4. *Industrial Councils.* (Suggestions as to the constitution and functions of a National Joint Industrial Council, of District Councils of National Joint Industrial Councils, and of Works Committees in Industries in which National Joint Industrial Councils are established.)

—— *Report on the Establishment and Progress of Joint Industrial Councils, 1917-1922.* (This Report contains a valuable section on the progress of the Whitley principle in countries other than Great Britain.)

Committee on Industry and Trade: *Survey of Industrial Relations.* London, H.M. Stationery Office, 1916.

industrial councils covering the trade as a whole. In actual fact the joint industrial council for the whole, or a large part, of a trade is the only type which has secured wide adoption. Furthermore, of the Councils of this type originally set up nearly half have passed out of existence and there have been no additions in recent years[1]. In spite of this, however, the surviving Councils cover trades employing some three million workers, that is to say, approximately a quarter of the industrial population of Great Britain insured under the Unemployment Insurance Acts.

The actual value of these Councils in practice is a matter more difficult to gauge. The following comment, made by the Committee on Industry and Trade in its *Survey of Industrial Relations*[2], expresses the view generally taken of the degree of success attained :

> The Councils have, undoubtedly, proved valuable agencies for maintaining good relations and preventing interruptions of production and also for promoting general welfare. If the movement has not in fact realised the brightest hopes of its promoters, the dislocations and disappointments of the post-war period must be remembered.

The following objective account of the activities of certain of the joint industrial councils, taken from the same source[3], gives some general idea of their usefulness :

> In the abnormal circumstances of the period since the war the activities of the Councils have been to a large extent taken up in the consideration of wages, hours and conditions of employment. In this field it may be said that the Whitley Scheme has had two important effects in the industries to which it has been applied. It has widened the basis of collective bargaining, and has instituted permanent and systematic means for the review of wages and working conditions. In a large number of cases steps have been taken for the standardisation of wage rates and of hours throughout the industry. Various principles have been adopted, including the grading and classification of establishments and localities, and the adjustment of wages on cost-of-living scales, in some cases based on the rates of wages already in operation in the various districts. Various other working conditions have been discussed and settled on a more comprehensive scale than was the case previously.
>
> In the field of conciliation and arbitration, the Councils have played an important part in assisting the industries to settle their differences themselves. The constitution of a large number of Councils provides that no stoppage of work shall take place until the matter in dispute has been considered by the Council, and this applies also to those Councils

[1] Between January 1918 and December 1921 73 joint industrial councils and 33 interim reconstruction committees were established. By June 1925 only 50 joint industrial councils and 7 interim reconstruction committees remained.

[2] P. 46.

[3] Pp. 298-299.

which do not include the settlement of wages among their functions. In some cases, as, for example, quarrying, a definite procedure has been instituted for the prevention and settlement of disputes. In the case of the Wool Council, panels of chairmen and arbitrators have been constituted for the purpose of dealing with disputes arising in individual establishments. A later development has been the *ad hoc* appointment, on the initiative of the National Councils for the Tramways, Electricity Supply and Wool Councils, in association with the Ministry of Labour, of Tribunals to enquire into and make recommendations to the Councils on differences which had arisen. Experience has shown that the existence of a Joint Industrial Council, on which the organisations on both sides are constantly in touch, and on which there is regular intercourse between the employers' and workpeople's representatives, has enabled differences to be dealt with at an early stage, and has diminished the opportunity for disputes to arise through lack of understanding.

It is of course impossible to obtain quantitative evidence of the extent to which disputes have been thus obviated, but all things considered this experiment in preventive conciliation has achieved a certain measure of success and must be looked upon as a valuable part of the machinery of conciliation and arbitration. Nevertheless, without some more definite function to fulfil, the joint industrial council method would seem on the whole more likely to decline than to progress.

Settlement.

C nciliation. Of machinery for the settlement of disputes in general there is a wide range of choice. A system of conciliation which would appear on the whole to have given good results is that in force in Sweden[1]. A brief description of this system and some account of the results obtained may be of interest.

The form of conciliation in force in Sweden is of that type which in an earlier article was termed "optional conciliation with coercive powers". This system has been in operation since 1920, replacing an Act of 1906 substantially similar except that the conciliators were given less freedom of initiative.

Under the present Act provision is made for state conciliators appointed by districts. These conciliators are charged to follow with close attention the conditions of work within their districts, to lend assistance in the settlement of trade disputes arising therein, and on request to assist employers and workers to conclude agreements likely to establish good relations and to prevent strikes and lockouts.

If a dispute arises within the sphere of a conciliator, which

[1] Cf. INTERNATIONAL LABOUR OFFICE : *Legislative Series*, 1920, Swe. 6-8.

leads or threatens to lead to a strike or lockout of great importance, the conciliator pays a personal visit to the place where the dispute has broken out, or in some other manner enters into communication with the parties, in order to procure adequate information as regards the subject of the dispute. He then urges the parties, pending a settlement, not to bring about, continue, or extend a strike or lockout, and calls upon them to meet together for negotiations before him at a stated time and place with the object of effecting a settlement of the dispute.

The parties are bound to respond to the conciliator's summons (although no penalty is provided in the event of failure to respond), and on the request of the conciliator they are bound " to give him extracts from the accounts and other documents, together with statistical data, and other facts with which the dispute is concerned, and also to grant him access to the workplaces concerned, in so far as this is necessary in order that he may have a sufficient basis for coming to a decision on the dispute " (section 7)[1].

On the other hand, if a strike or lockout is not imminent and if both parties announce to the conciliator that they do not consider that the continuation of negotiations will serve any useful purpose, the conciliator may refrain from proceeding to convene the parties ; but if a change of circumstances arises, he summons the parties to fresh negotiations.

Statistical record shows that during the period 1914-1924 there were in all 3,737 stoppages of work in Sweden involving 620,482 workers. In 990 of these stoppages of work, affecting 413,690 workers, the state conciliators intervened — in 92 cases before, in 898 cases after, the stoppage of work had taken place. In addition, they intervened in 526 cases involving 675,195 workers in which no stoppage of work took place. Of the total of 1,516 cases of intervention 1,178 were followed by results. Thus, in over 85 per cent. of the disputes in which the state conciliators intervened before a strike or lockout took place, they were successful in preventing a stoppage of work. Furthermore, they intervened at some stage in well over one quarter of the stoppages of work, and these the most important, since they involved over two-thirds of the workers affected. Of the total interventions more than three-quarters were successful.

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[1] These coercive powers are not in fact frequently resorted to, but it would seem that the general standing and prestige of the conciliator is enhanced by their presence on the statute book.

A further significant indication of the general success of the Swedish method is that refusals to accept mediation have fallen from 21.2 per cent. during the period 1907-1914 to 9.6 per cent. during the period 1915-1923.

If this record is compared with that of countries such as Great Britain or France in which other forms of conciliation are practised, the degree of success obtained would appear to rank relatively high. In Great Britain, over the period 1910-1924, only 8 per cent. of the stoppages of work, involving 15 per cent. of the total number of workers engaged in strikes and lockouts, were settled by some form of conciliation, while 6 per cent. of the stoppages of work, affecting 5 per cent. of the work-people, were dealt with by arbitration[1]. In France slightly over 20 per cent. of the strikes occurring during the period 1893-1914 were submitted to the machinery provided for by the Act of 1892, and less than 10 per cent. were settled, directly or indirectly, by these means[2].

Enquiry. Machinery for enquiry into industrial disputes in general exists in a number of countries, notably Canada and Great Britain, but it has not yet been sufficiently used to justify the drawing of any very definite conclusions as to the most successful method of application.

One of the chief difficulties in arriving at a judgment on this matter is that the precise function of a court or board of enquiry is not clearly defined. The purposes it might possibly serve are three: to bring out the relevant facts; to act as a conciliation agency, in particular to enable one or other party to " save its face "; or to mobilise and direct public opinion.

Where enquiry is preceded by an adequate system of conciliation the first two functions would presumably be rendered unnecessary. If the third purpose — the mobilisation and direction of public opinion — is thus regarded as the main object of the court of enquiry, a number of general conclusions may be drawn.

In the first place, it is more than ever necessary that the constitution of a court of enquiry should be such as both commands public respect and makes a unanimous recommendation possible. In the second place, enquiry is most likely to produce good results in those disputes in which the community as a whole, or some considerable section of it, is actively interested. As a direct deduc-

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[1] *Ministry of Labour Gazette*, July 1925.

[2] CHAMBRE DES DÉPUTÉS : *Rapport concernant les conflits collectifs du travail et l'exercice du droit de grève*, by René LAFARGE, p. 16. Paris, 1920.

tion from this latter consideration it would seem probable that, to be effective, enquiry must not be too frequently used, as otherwise it is not likely to gain that amount of public attention necessary to give its findings force.

On the whole, therefore, while of distinct value in dealing with especial disputes such as those occurring in public utilities, and possibly in disputes of great social and economic importance, enquiry, as a means of preventing and settling disputes in general, would not appear to be a particularly valuable method, except on relatively rare occasions. Until further experiments have been made, however, final judgment in this matter is best left suspended.

Arbitration. Unquestionably the most complete machinery for optional arbitration is that set up in Great Britain under the Industrial Courts Act, 1919. This Act makes possible the reference of a dispute to a permanent court consisting either of one or more impartial persons, or of one or more impartial persons together with representatives of employers and workers (one of whom may be a woman); or to an *ad hoc* board; or to a single arbitrator appointed *ad hoc*. In short, it makes provision for practically every possible form of arbitration tribunal. The degree of success achieved during the comparatively short period that this Act has been in operation, while far from spectacular, is nevertheless amply sufficient to justify its existence on the statute book[1].

During the period 1920-1924, 1,125 cases were submitted to arbitration under the Industrial Courts Act. In addition there were 589 settlements arrived at by governmental conciliation agencies, making a total of 1,714 disputes handled in all[2]. During these five years the number of strikes and lockouts recorded was 4,283, so that, on the average, for every five stoppages of work

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[1] For information concerning the machinery and operation of the arbitration provisions of the Industrial Courts Act, the following books and reports may be usefully consulted:

Sir W. Mackenzie: *The Industrial Court: Practice and Procedure* (London, Butterworth, 1923); "The British Industrial Court", in *International Labour Review*, Vol. III, Nos. 1 and 2, July-Aug. 1921; *Journal of the Royal Society of Arts*, 11 May 1923.

Report on Conciliation and Arbitration, 1919. Cmd. 221. London, H.M. Stationery Office, 1920.

Report of the Ministry of Labour for the years 1923-1924. Cmd. 2481. London, H.M. Stationery Office, 1925.

W. H. Stoker: *The Industrial Courts Act, 1919, and Conciliation and Arbitration in Industrial Disputes.* London, 1920.

Sir Lynden Macassey: *Journal of the Society of Comparative Legislation and International Law*, Jan. 1920.

Annual Reports of Awards of the Court.

[2] These figures include 16 cases in which Courts of Enquiry were set up.

two disputes were settled by governmental agencies, and of these settlements almost two-thirds were arrived at by means of the arbitration machinery of the Industrial Courts Act.

Compared with the record of earlier years, these figures show a considerable advance. Under the provisions for conciliation and arbitration made available by the Conciliation Act of 1896, only 685 cases were referred to governmental agencies of conciliation and arbitration during the period 1897-1913, the number of stoppages of work recorded for that period being 10,836. That is to say, whereas during the period 1897-1913 for every hundred strikes and lockouts which took place approximately six disputes were dealt with by government agencies, during the period 1920-1924 for every hundred strikes and lockouts some 40 disputes were dealt with by government agencies — over 26 of them by the arbitration machinery of the Industrial Courts Act.

These figures, however, may possibly tend to exaggerate the importance of the work done under the Industrial Courts Act. It is true that during the five years 1920-1924 an average of 343 cases were dealt with every year by governmental agencies, as against 82 cases per annum for the five years 1910-1914 and 41 cases per annum during the whole period 1896-1914. On the other hand, it requires to be pointed out that of the total of 1,714 cases handled by governmental agencies during the five post-war years, more than half (914), were dealt with in 1920, being for the most part a legacy from the war-time period of compulsory settlement. Nevertheless, the Industrial Court, in spite of a decline in the years 1921 and 1922, has undoubtedly secured for itself a definite place in the British system of conciliation and arbitration and would seem likely to become more widely used as its usefulness becomes more generally recognised.

Compulsory Measures

It is considerably more difficult to pick out instances of compulsory measures for the conciliation and arbitration of disputes in general, which can be said to stand out as having given *and continued to give* satisfactory results. There is, it is true, one conspicuous exception. The wages board system (already dealt with here under the heading of especial disputes), where applied to disputes in general, would seem definitely to have proved its value. Apart from this, however, compulsory methods have undoubtedly suffered from the fact that they were on the whole far more successful in

the first few years of their existence than they were in subsequent years. New Zealand for over a decade was " the country without strikes ". The Australian Commonwealth Arbitration Court in the early years of its existence achieved notable successes. Fortunately the record of these halcyon years is preserved for us in two of the most interesting works in the whole literature of conciliation and arbitration written by the men who had most to do with the experiments in question[1]. But, since these books were written, the position in both countries has changed considerably for the worse. Both New Zealand and Australia maintain their faith in compulsory arbitration as a method, but, in Australia in any case, few would venture to advocate the actual measures in operation as a model.

Under these circumstances it is not proposed to attempt any discrimination between the numerous and highly complicated systems of compulsion which have been tried, in these two countries in particular, and to some slight extent in Europe and the Americas. There are, however, certain features which stand out as a result of any study of this type of machinery which may be briefly referred to here.

As already pointed out, compulsory methods have suffered in popular estimation because they have not proved so successful in subsequent years as they did when they were first instituted. But obviously this does not mean that the less conspicuous success of later days is necessarily to be classed as failure. It is purely a question of relativity. New Zealand, for example, is no longer the " country without strikes " that it was, but it nevertheless occupies the last place in the comparative table of days lost per 1,000 inhabitants in various countries[2].

This argument is, for various reasons, not altogether conclusive. Nevertheless it certainly gives ground for thinking that in those countries where some form of compulsion is politically possible, it may perhaps be worth trying in spite of its logical imperfections. Certainly the various experiments in compulsion recently undertaken, from the Belgian method of using the state unemployment fund to discourage intransigence on either side, to the whole-

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[1] W. P. Reeves : *State Experiments in Australia and New Zealand.* London, Allen and Unwin, 1902.

Henry Bournes Higgins : *A New Province for Law and Order.* London, Constable, 1922.

[2] Cf. the first part of this article, in *International Labour Review*, Vol. XIV, No. 5, Nov. 1926, p. 646.

hearted prohibition of stoppages of work in Italy, deserve to be followed with the closest attention.

On the other hand, it is necessary to guard against the tendency to attribute to compulsion the good results which may be due in reality to other factors. In Australia and New Zealand compulsory arbitration has been supplemented, and to some extent replaced, by methods of wage determination in which the essential factor is not so much the compulsory element as the fact that both employers and workers accept the same principles for determining wage rates. It would seem of the greatest interest, particularly to countries where compulsory arbitration is for one reason or other undesirable, to explore the possibilities of this method.

Wage Determination

Experience in various industries and various countries would seem to indicate that the determination of wages by reference to principles previously agreed to by both workers and employers is a method of promoting industrial peace which has achieved an unusual measure of success.

The actual framing of practical and scientific principles for the determination of wages is a difficult technical problem[1], but, as already pointed out, the principles adopted would appear to be of less importance than the *agreement* to accept such principles. In Australia, for instance, employers and workers accept the principle of the " living wage ". This wage in terms of actual money is declared from time to time by some official commission. It represents the amount estimated as necessary to meet the needs of an " average " family. The methods of arriving at the figure are extremely rough and ready[2], but the all-important point is that

[1] Reference may be made to a number of recently published books on this question which deal with some of the chief difficulties to be considered in the formulation of wage principles :

Herbert Feis : *The Settlement of Wage Disputes.* New York, McMillan, 1921.

—— *Principles of Wage Settlement.* New York, H. W. Wilson, 1924.

Walton Hamilton and Stacy May : *The Control of Wages.* New York, George H. Doran, 1923.

A. G. B. Fisher : *Some Problems of Wages and Their Regulation in Great Britain since 1918.* London, P. S. King, 1926.

E. M. Burns : *Wages and the State.* London, P. S. King, 1926.

Report of the Economic Commission on the Queensland Basic Wage. Brisbane, Govt. Printer, 1925.

[2] For a description of the original Harvester decision, by which the living wage was first determined, of the formulae adopted in the various States as to what the living wage represents, and of the measures taken in recent years in New Zea-

both sides accept it. The apparent effect on the number of strikes and lockouts over wage questions is remarkable.

In the great majority of countries, wages are decided by bargaining power. In these countries, as the following tabular statement shows, disputes over wages account for between two-thirds and three-quarters of the stoppages of work.

PERCENTAGE OF STOPPAGES OF WORK IN VARIOUS COUNTRIES ATTRIBUTABLE IN PART OR WHOLE TO WAGE DISPUTES[1]

Country	Period	Percentage of stoppages due to wage disputes
Canada	1914–1924	68
Finland	1913–1914 1917–1923	78
Great Britain	1910–1924	66
Italy	1914–1923	76
Japan	1914–1924	71
Spain	1914–1923	62
Sweden	1914–1924	77
United States	1916–1922	62

[1] Countries in which wage rates have been subject to exceptionally wide fluctuations are omitted, as tending to vitiate the comparison.

In Australia and New Zealand, on the other hand, wage disputes during the periods 1913-1923 and 1906-1923 respectively accounted for 35 per cent. and 37 per cent. of the stoppages of work. That is to say, on the average twice as many strikes and lockouts over wages occurred in countries where no agreed principle of wage determination was in force as occurred in countries where such agreement exists.

Moreover, whereas the stoppages of work in countries having no principle of wage determination were frequently above the average in size (as shown by the number of workers affected)[1],

land in fixing the living wage, the following book and articles will be found of interest :

H. B. HIGGINS : *A New Province for Law and Order.*

International Labour Review, Vol. IX, No. 3, March 1924 : " Experiments in State Control in New Zealand ", by J. B. CONDLIFFE ; and Vol. X, Nos. 4-6, Oct.-Dec. 1924 : " The Development of State Wage Regulation in Australia and New Zealand ", by D. McDaniel SELLS.

[1] In Great Britain for instance the 66 per cent. of stoppages of work over wage questions involved 69 per cent. of the workers directly affected.

those in Australia and New Zealand were below the average, only 33 per cent. and 30 per cent. respectively of the workers engaged in strikes and lockouts during the periods under consideration having ceased work over wage questions.

Needless to say, some caution is required in weighing these figures. It is arguable, for instance, that the apparently low percentage of wage disputes resulting in stoppages of work in these two countries is due rather to an extraordinarily large number of strikes and lockouts over other questions, such, for example, as that of trade union organisation. But even when full consideration is given to this possibility, the high percentage of wage conflicts in the one group of countries and the low percentage in the other is still sufficiently remarkable to reinforce strongly the likelihood of good results following from the adoption of principles of wage determination agreed to by both sides.

Conclusion

As already emphasised, the attempt here made to distinguish those measures of conciliation and arbitration which would appear on the whole to have given satisfactory results is altogether tentative. There is no scientific criterion by which these results may be definitely appraised, and consequently no means of arriving at any positive decision as to the merits of this or that particular method. Indeed, of the various measures indicated in the foregoing pages as having given satisfactory results there is hardly one that could not be attacked from one point of view or another.

In particular there is the apparent paradox that while Great Britain and Sweden are among those countries which have adopted measures here classed as inherently sound, it is precisely these two countries which, during the last few years, have suffered most severely, in proportion to their population, from the effects of stoppages of work[1].

This apparently incongruous fact is not so incongruous as might be supposed. For one thing, it is necessary to remember that statistics of strikes and lockouts are not always internationally comparable : Great Britain, for example, includes in the statistics of days lost through strikes and lockouts, not only days lost by

[1] Cf. *International Labour Review*, Vol. XIV, No. 5, Nov. 1926, p. 646.

workpeople actually on strike or locked out, but also days lost by workpeople indirectly thrown out of work in those establishments involved in the stoppage. For another, it is only under exceptional circumstances that the value of a measure can be judged to any extent by comparing statistics of strikes and lockouts in one country with the statistics of strikes and lockouts in another country. In most cases the effect of fundamental economic differences (e.g. degree of industrialisation) and of temporary circumstances (e.g. trade depression) is so great that comparison between countries as a means of judging the inherent soundness of a measure is of little if any value.

It is, therefore, not so paradoxical as would at first appear that countries employing measures of conciliation and arbitration regarded as " successful " should nevertheless still suffer severely from strikes and lockouts.

There is, however, one further consideration of first importance which requires to be taken into account here. One, or even two or three, inherently sound measures for dealing with industrial disputes do not necessarily constitute an inherently sound system. They may suffice when economic and psychological conditions are favourable, but when these conditions are definitely adverse to industrial peace the only system which can be regarded as sound is a *complete* system.

What constitutes completeness in a system of conciliation and arbitration ? In attempting to answer this question, the analysis of the two previous parts of this article is valuable.

In the first place, for a system to be complete it must deal not only with the *psychological* difficulty of getting the parties together under suitable conditions, but also with the *economic* problem involved, in particular the division of the product ; that is to say, it must make provision not only for (1) machinery of negotiation, but also for (2) agreed principles governing conditions of work, especially the determination of wages rates.

This is in all probability the most essential point of all, but there is a second point no less vital. The machinery of negotiation must make provision for the *prevention* of industrial disputes as well as for their *settlement*. A country having (A) machinery of negotiation for the prevention of disputes in their incipient stages and (B) machinery of negotiation for the settlement of disputes once they have taken definite shape, and which furthermore supplements this machinery of negotiation by principles agreed upon beforehand as to how wages and possibly other conditions of

work are to be determined, may be said to have the essentials of a complete system.

There are further possible and desirable elaborations. The machinery of negotiation for the prevention of disputes requires to be adapted so as to deal with disputes in unorganised trades and industries as well as with disputes in the trades, industries, districts and establishments in which organisation is more complete. The machinery of negotiation for the settlement of disputes may well provide for dealing with justiciable disputes and with disputes (as in public utilities) particularly affecting the life of the community as well as for the conciliation and arbitration of disputes in general.

Put out schematically a complete system of conciliation and arbitration, thus tentatively sketched, would comprise :

1. Machinery of negotiation :
   - A. Prevention
     - (i) In unorganised industries ;
     - (ii) In organised industries.
   - B. Settlement
     - (i) Justiciable disputes ;
     - (ii) Disputes particularly affecting the community ;
     - (iii) Disputes in general.
2. Agreed principles governing conditions of work, especially the determination of wage rates.

The question of the extent to which compulsion should enter into such a system is a matter for each particular country. But, however much or however little this may be, the two fundamental principles on which this tentative synthesis is based — full discussion at all stages and substantial agreement *beforehand* as to what constitutes a " square deal " — would appear sound. For in the final analysis the most essential constituent and at the same time the ultimate aim of all methods of conciliation and arbitration is good will, and good will to be enduring can have no foundations other than these.

REPORTS AND ENQUIRIES

Wages and Hours of Work in Italian Industry in 1925

The General Directorate of Labour, Social Welfare, and Credit, of the Ministry of National Economy, has recently published the results of an enquiry into working conditions in certain industries[1]. The report — the first of its kind to appear in Italy — is intended to serve as the basis for a series of systematic reports on wages, to be compiled annually on a uniform system.

The enquiry covered (*a*) the average effective earnings (per hour and per day) of certain classes of workers engaged in the principal branches of industry and (*b*) the average working day. These averages are, as a rule, based upon the figures for the first half of May 1925 ; in some cases the figures for the second half of August of that year are also taken into account.

The enquiry dealt with 763,043 workers, employed in 4,486 undertakings ; the total number of workers employed in these undertakings was 811,167. The following table shows the branches of industry considered, with the number of undertakings and workers engaged in them

Industry	Undertakings	Workers employed in them and covered by the enquiry
Cotton manufacture	966	228,668
Shipbuilding and engineering	949	176,531
Silk manufacture	1,160	160,623
Woollen manufacture	422	65,708
Iron and steel manufacture	67	48,384
Artificial silk manufacture	19	22,940
Paper making	206	20,958
Metal-founding (pig-iron, aluminium, bronze, brass, zinc, nickel)	295	19,725
Electrical	330	14,734
Phosphates	72	4,772
	4,486	763,043

Information is also supplied separately for each province, for groups of provinces (Northern Italy, Central Italy, and Southern Italy with Sicily and Sardinia), as well as for the whole kingdom, for each category

[1] Ministry of National Economy, General Directorate of Labour, Social Welfare, and Credit : *Salari e Orari nelle Industrie* (*Maggio-Agosto 19..*). Rome, 1926. xxi + 323 pp. (Reprinted from the *Bollettino del Lavoro*, May-June 1925.)

of worker in each of the industries considered. The general results are shown in tabular form, and by means of diagrams.

The method of publishing the results of the enquiry was selected with a view to showing :

(1) the number of undertakings covered by the enquiry ;

(2) the total numbers of workers employed in these undertakings ;

(3) the total number of workers so employed (classified as male or female respectively) whose wages and hours were ascertained for the purposes of the enquiry ;

(4) the total numbers of workers, grouped according to their normal working hours, i.e. those working less than 8 hours, those working 8 hours, and those working more than 8 hours daily ;

(5) the percentage of overtime worked, compared with the normal working hours ;

(6) average hourly and daily earnings for a normal day's work (i.e. apart from any overtime performed), on the one hand, and average daily earnings for an effective or total day's work (i.e. including any additional pay for overtime worked), on the other hand.

The hours worked by those coming within the scope of the enquiry were as follows :

Hours normally worked per day	Workers covered by the enquiry	Per cent.
Less than 8	26,827	3.5
8	703,872	92.2
More than 8	32,344	4.3
	763,043	100.00

The mean proportion of overtime worked in all industries during the period studied was 5.35 per cent. of the normal working hours ; it was considerably above this figure in the artificial silk industry (16.44 per cent.), shipbuilding (13.60 per cent.), mechanical engineering in general (10.42 per cent.), the automobile industry (10.31 per cent.), and metal-founding (10.36 per cent.).

Average earnings for the whole of Italy and in all the industries considered were as follows :

	Lire
Average earnings, without overtime :	
Per hour	2.07
Per day	16.62
Average earnings, including overtime :	
Per day	17.77

The results of the enquiry are summarised in the following tables, which give figures classified by branches of industry (table I), by provinces (table II), and by branches of industry for the principal provinces and for the whole of Italy (table III).

TABLE I. WORKERS, HOURS, AND AVERAGE EARNINGS IN CERTAIN BRANCHES OF INDUSTRY IN ITALY DURING THE FIRST HALF OF MAY 1925

Industry	Number of workers covered by the enquiry		Number of workers normally employed for			Overtime worked per cent. of normal hours	Average earnings		
			Hours per day				Without overtime		With overtime
	Men	Women	Less than 8	8	More than 8		Per hour	Per day	Per day
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8) Lire	(9) Lire	(10) Lire
Wool weaving	25,054	40,654	2,077	63,331	300	3.41	2.03	16.22	16.85
Cotton spinning and doubling	23,948	72,323	20,995	69,623	5,653	2.95	1.69	13.37	13.86
Cotton weaving	33,777	98,620	3,696	117,759	10,942	2.99	1.76	14.19	14.76
Silk spinning	2,390	91,818	—	85,086	9,122	3.01	1.10	8.94	9.26
Silk throwing	1,453	21,599	5	22,293	754	2.28	1.09	8.80	9.02
Silk weaving	2,867	28,140	—	30,776	231	1.77	1.83	14.68	14.97
Silk dyeing	3,026	901	—	3,927	—	8.35	3.03	24.26	26.74
Waste silk manufacture	1,976	6,453	—	7,785	644	1.20	1.67	13.53	13.74
Artificial silk manufacture	9,423	13,517	—	22,940	—	16.44	1.85	14.79	17.44
Iron and steel	47,938	446	—	48,229	155	7.66	3.23	25.92	28.06
Metal-founding	18,993	732	—	19,098	627	10.36	2.84	22.80	25.25
Shipbuilding	25,982	236	—	26,048	170	13.60	2.56	20.50	23.81
Automobile manufacture	25,788	1,443	—	27,096	135	10.31	3.45	27.66	30.96
Construction and repair of railway material	28,921	466	12	28,836	539	8.37	2.84	22.77	24.47
Machine construction in general	26,121	332	—	26,227	226	10.42	2.74	21.96	24.65
Construction and repair of electrical material and motors	9,343	1,831	—	11,156	18	9.25	2.77	22.17	24.10
Other mechanical industries	45,233	10,835	—	53,918	2,150	6.02	2.42	19.51	20.89
Electrical industry	14,679	55	22	14,250	462	6.12	2.88	23.19	24.65
Paper manufacture	13,457	7,501	—	20,749	209	3.86	1.96	15.75	16.55
Phosphate industry	4,703	69	20	4,745	7	3.21	2.67	21.33	22.26
All industries	365,072	397,971	26,827	703,872	32,344	5.35	2.07	16.62	17.77

TABLE II. WORKERS AND AVERAGE EARNINGS IN ALL INDUSTRIES CONSIDERED, BY PROVINCES, DURING THE FIRST HALF OF MAY 1925

Province	Number of workers covered by the enquiry			Average earnings		
				Without overtime		With overtime
	Men	Women	Total	Per hour	Per day	Per day
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5) Lire	(6) Lire	(7) Lire
Piedmont	88,244	84,941	173,185	2.30	18.35	19.78
Liguria	36,237	5,560	41,797	2.81	22.56	25.07
Lombardy	133,748	220,373	354,121	1.95	15.66	16.46
Venetia	21,783	49,696	71,479	1.59	12.76	13.23
Venetia Giulia	14,165	784	14,949	2.79	22.36	26.85
Emilia	8,877	3,075	11,952	2.26	18.13	18.94
Northern Italy	303,054	364,429	667,483	2.08	16.67	17.78
Tuscany	24,723	12,998	37,721	2.18	17.47	18.61
Marches	2,729	5,929	8,658	1.59	12.74	13.15
Umbria	5,588	1,921	7,509	2.41	19.33	20.46
Roma	3,250	1,525	4,775	2.16	17.33	19.17
Abruzzi	780	220	1,000	1.77	14.79	15.34
Central Italy	37,070	22,593	59,663	2.12	17.01	18.08
Campagna	18,005	9,593	27,598	1.86	15.55	17.61
Apulia	1,987	9	1,996	2.06	16.60	17.45
Basilicata	167	10	177	2.04	16.65	—
Calabria	188	975	1,163	0.83	6.90	7.45
Sicily	4,190	357	4,547	1.73	14.06	15.92
Sardinia	411	5	416	1.91	15.43	16.44
Southern Italy and Islands	24,948	10,949	35,897	1.82	15.11	17.00

Table I shows (column 10) that average total earnings in the silk dyeing, iron and steel, metal-founding, shipbuilding, and automobile industries, the construction and repair of railway material and of electrical material, and the engineering, electrical, and phosphate industries are above the general average for the whole of Italy ; while in the wool weaving, cotton spinning, doubling, and weaving, silk spinning, throwing, and weaving, waste and artificial silk, and paper industries they are below it.

TABLE III. WORKERS AND AVERAGE DAILY EARNINGS IN VARIOUS BRANCHES OF INDUSTRY IN CERTAIN PROVINCES AND THE WHOLE KINGDOM, DURING THE FIRST HALF OF MAY 1925

Branch of industry	Lombardy		Piedmont		Venetia		Whole of Italy	
	Number of workers	Average total earnings per day	Number of workers	Average total earnings per day	Number of workers	Average total earnings per day	Number of workers	Average total earnings per day
(1)	(2)	(3) Lire	(4)	(5) Lire	(6)	(7) Lire	(8)	(9) Lire
Textile industry :								
Wool	11,221	14.35	32,029	18.43	11,747	14.78	65,708	16.85
Cotton	132,434	14.57	52,954	14.84	18,520	13.04	228,668	14.38
Silk	108,568	11.62	14,569	11.03	25,710	9.08	160,623	10.96
Artificial silk	10,605	16.56	8,877	19.34	1,599	14.48	22,940	17.44
Iron and steel	16,841	28.92	7,238	25.97	817	31.03	48,384	28.06
Metal-founding	8,010	25.05	4,418	28.66	703	18.02	19,725	25.26
Shipbuilding	—	—	—	—	1.669	23.36	26,218	23.81
Automobile manufacture	6,898	30.22	19,502	31.53	213	17.67	27,231	30.98
Mechanical engineering (excluding automobile manufacture)	50,547	24.11	26,306	23.81	4,830	16.03	123,082	22.84
Electrical industry	2,677	25.58	1,448	25.78	1,815	25.19	14,734	24.65
Paper manufacture	5,751	18.86	5,251	16.26	2,735	15.66	20,961	16.55
Phosphate industry	569	24.11	593	24.15	1,121	21.65	4,772	22.26

A closer examination of the figures shows that the industries in which average earnings are lowest are also those in which almost all the workers are women, e.g. silk spinning and throwing. *Vice versa*, in the branches where average earnings are highest, i.e. the iron and steel and automobile industries, the great majority of the workers are men.

Table II shows that average earnings in Northern Italy (where most of the workers covered by the enquiry are employed) are almost identical with the general average for the whole of Italy ; in Central Italy they are slightly above and in Southern Italy slightly below this general average. If those provinces which are of the greatest industrial importance are considered separately, it will be seen that in Piedmont, Liguria, and Tuscany average earnings are definitely higher than the general average for the whole country ; while in Lombardy (where nearly one-half of the workers covered are employed), Venetia, and the Campagna — especially in the first two — they are below it. The proportion of male workers employed is as follows in the provinces mentioned : Pied-

mont, 51 per cent. ; Liguria, 86.6 per cent. ; Tuscany, 65.5 per cent. ; Lombardy, 37.8 per cent. ; Venetia, 30.05 per cent. ; and the Campagna, 65.2 per cent. With the exception of the last mentioned, these percentages confirm the direct relationship already found in table I between the amount of earnings and the number of female workers employed.

From the average daily earnings (including overtime) shown in table III it will be seen that of the three provinces considered Lombardy pays the highest wages in the silk and paper industries and in engineering, Piedmont in the woollen, cotton, metal-founding, automobile, electrical, and phosphate industries, and Venetia in the iron and steel industry, though only to a very small number of workers.

It should be added that Liguria pays high wages, as compared with other provinces, in the iron and steel, shipbuilding, and engineering industries, which are the principal branches there. In Venetia Giulia higher wages are paid in shipbuilding, which is there the most important industry, than in any other province. In the Campagna, the only industry of any importance in which wages are higher than the average for the whole of Italy in the same group is the electrical industry.

The Work of the British Ministry of Labour in 1925

No general report on its activities was issued by the British Ministry of Labour until 1925, and the first report, covering the years 1923 and 1924, was naturally devoted in part to explaining the organisation and functions of the Ministry, the legislation which it has to administer, and the history prior to 1923 of matters upon which no special report had previously been issued[1]. The second is more definitely an annual report[2], and provides a mass of detailed and classified information, not merely on the scope and nature of the legislation for which the Ministry is responsible[3], but on its working and effects during 1925.

Employment and Unemployment

The activities of the Ministry under this head were naturally given great prominence by the continued severity of unemployment throughout

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[1] This was summarised in *International Labour Review*, Vol. XII, No. 6, Dec. 1925, pp. 854-862.

[2] Ministry of Labour : *Report for the Year 1925*. Cmd. 2736. London, H.M. Stationery Office, 1926. 164 pp. 3s.

[3] Not all labour legislation falls within the competence of the Ministry of Labour; factory inspection, notably, is controlled by the Home Office.

the year. It is significant that half the entire report is devoted to matters connected with employment or unemployment.

Unemployment was rather worse during 1925 than in 1924, reaching its maximum in August, after which there was an improvement up to the end of the year. The following figures illustrate the situation :

Date (end of month)	Percentage of insured workers unemployed	Number of unemployed registered with employment exchanges
1924 December	10.8	1,273,885
1925 January	11.3	1,240,922
May	10.9	1,186,522
August	12.2	1,354,302
December	10.1	1,102,400

The whole situation was coloured by the depression in the coal industry, which reached its climax in August. Unemployment was also bad in the wool textile industry during the first half of the year, while many of the staple industries, including iron and steel, engineering, shipbuilding, and cotton, were more or less severely depressed throughout the year.

Commenting on the live register figures, the Ministry of Labour points out that their significance varies in different industries and different areas. The personnel of the unemployed is constantly changing, and the period for which a worker's name is on the register ranges from a few hours to months or even years. Again, the same live register figure in different areas may have a very different significance. In an area with a variety of trades the "turnover" of the register may be rapid, and the exchange may be an important clearing centre. In a coal-mining district, on the other hand, the register consists almost entirely of colliery workers and may rise from 50 to 5,000 almost overnight if two or three pits stop work, while the exchange is of less importance as a centre for finding either workers or employment.

The total number of registrations (including re-registrations of the same person) with the employment exchanges in 1925 was 12,728,238, as compared with 11,262,887 in 1924. Of these 69 per cent. were registrations of men, 23 per cent. of women, and 8 per cent. of boys and girls under 18. The number of vacancies filled was 1,279,292, only 10 per cent. of the registrations but 86.4 per cent. of the number of vacancies notified. The proportion of vacancies filled to those notified has risen steadily, if slowly, in spite of the prolonged industrial depression. Unfortunately, figures of the number of individuals registered and placed have not been available since 1922, when the averages were 1.4 registrations and 1.4 placings per individual.

Figures for the principal industries in which vacancies were filled for men and women are as follows :

VACANCIES FILLED IN 1924, IN CERTAIN INDUSTRIES

Men		Women	
Industry	Vacancies filled	Industry	Vacancies filled
Construction of works	175,161	Domestic service	129,847
General labourers	114,226	Dress	35,631
Building :		Cotton	24,185
Skilled	54,779	Miscellaneous textiles	21,605
Unskilled	21,071	Food, tobacco, drink,	
Engineering	54,033	lodgings, etc.	15,863
Transport	36,696	Commerce	11,930
Agriculture	21,590		
Metals	20,833		
Commerce	20,002		

The general figures given above do not include placings of dock labourers. The habitual methods of engaging such workers place this type of work rather outside the normal operations of employment exchanges, but in 1925 the exchanges found 27,329 jobs for dock labourers and similar workers (31,445 in 1924). Employers and workers are encouraged to set up independent registration committees in each port to arrange for restrictions on the supply of labour and a fair distribution of work, the Ministry providing clerical assistance where required. In 1925 registration schemes were continued or revived at 16 separate ports ; in particular the Joint Committee for the Port of London, which had been in suspense for some time, recommenced operations.

Juvenile Unemployment

In 1925 the total number of registrations from workers under 18 was 960,358, the number of vacancies notified 292,589, and the number of vacancies filled 236,807. In connection with schemes of juvenile migration it is estimated that about 2,400 boys proceeded to employment overseas during the year. The number of young workers (16-18) insured against unemployment[1] at July 1925 was 565,000 boys and 395,000 girls, an increase of 34,000 over the total for 1924.

As an indication of the severity of juvenile unemployment it is stated that the average juvenile live register was 63,137 in 1925, as against 66,261 in 1924. The average percentage of unemployed among juvenile insured workers was 4.1 in both years, which indicates a much smaller degree of unemployment among young workers than among adults.

During 1925 special efforts were made to keep in touch with young workers placed in employment by the exchanges during their first years of employment, this being a means of checking the efficiency of

[1] Excluding those covered by the special schemes for banking and insurance.

the exchanges as well as of helping the young people. Of 129 local juvenile advisory committees 103 now have special schemes for this purpose. In London, where the local committees are co-ordinated by an Advisory Committee for the whole area, special efforts have been made both in placing boys and girls and in investigating unemployment among them.

The unemployment centres established to give young unemployed workers an opportunity of continuing their education for a few hours weekly were maintained in operation during 1925. The maximum number of centres open in any one week was 141 and the maximum attendance 9,722. The total number of boys and girls who passed through the centres during the year was 53,918. The great majority of these were insured workers who were required to attend as a condition of receiving benefit.

Training of the Unemployed

A new scheme was introduced towards the close of 1925 for young unemployed men between the ages of 19 and 25. The object is to give men who have had no opportunity of learning a skilled trade some instruction in the use of tools, etc., to fit them for work as " handy men ", mainly in rural districts at home or in the Dominions, but not to teach them a definite trade. Courses lasting six months are given in four centres (two residential and two non-residential) with a total accommodation for about a thousand men. The centres were only opened towards the end of 1925 or the beginning of 1926, but the scheme already appears to be working well and giving satisfactory results.

The training schemes for unemployed women were continued. Courses in home-craft, etc. were attended by 7,919 women, 6,161 of whom completed their training during the year. Grants were made to 298 women to provide the necessary clothing and outfit to enter domestic service, and 258 women were assisted to obtain individual vocational training.

Assistance to Ex-Service Men

The practice of restricting public contracts to employers on the King's National Roll, who have undertaken to employ a certain proportion of disabled ex-Service men, is now followed by the Government and 544 local authorities. At the end of 1925 there were approximately 28,000 employers on the Roll, employing about 370,000 disabled men, as compared with 350,000 in December 1924.

Figures are given showing the number of disabled ex-Service men registered as unemployed at the employment exchanges. The total fell steadily from 37,599 in December 1924 to 31,291 in December 1925. Of these latter 59 per cent. were classified as fit for ordinary employment, whether in their pre-war occupation or otherwise, 38 per cent. as fit for light work, and only 3 per cent. as hardly fit for employment except in special institutions designed for severely disabled men.

To meet the needs of such ex-Service men, so severely disabled that they have no hope of obtaining employment under ordinary conditions, the Ministry of Labour introduced a new scheme at the end of 1924. Under this scheme financial assistance is given to undertakings whose chief object is to provide employment for severely disabled ex-Service men. The undertaking must not be run for profit, but must aim at being self-supporting, while contributions from other sources must be at least equal to the excess of the deficit incurred over the amount of the government grant.

Financial assistance from the government includes a single grant of £5 per man employed, towards the capital cost of establishing or extending an institution for severely disabled men, and an annual deficiency grant equal to half the loss per head in the previous year, up to a maximum of £35 per head, the total not to exceed half the previous year's total deficiency. Instead of the deficiency grant a training grant not exceeding 50s. per head per week may be given towards the cost of training men for the proposed work. During the year assistance was given to eleven institutions employing in all about 550 severely disabled ex-Service men. The total expenditure under the scheme was £15,977, as compared with £9,884 in 1924.

The Ministry is also winding up the various schemes for the assistance of ex-Service men introduced at the close of the war. Under the scheme of industrial training the number of disabled men in training at the end of 1925 was 2,929 (6,810 in December 1924) and of those on the waiting list 310 (2,146 in 1924). Under the scheme for disabled ex-officers 48 men completed their training during the year and only 32 now remain. The general scheme for ex-officers has practically come to an end, only three or four men being still in training.

Migration

The Ministry of Labour has certain functions in connection with the emigration of British workers and the immigration of foreigners.

The employment exchanges give information as to employment in the Dominions and assistance under the Empire Settlement scheme. The numbers of applications for such assistance received and granted in 1925 are as follows :

Dominion	Applications	Assistance granted
Australia	55,369	11,688
Canada	832	134
New Zealand	475	125
Total	56,676	11,947

The Ministry of Labour also deals with applications for permission to employ foreigners in Great Britain. In 1925 permits were applied for in 6,453 cases and granted in 5,349. The corresponding figures for 1924 were 5,085 and 3,875. The majority of permits granted were for musicians and theatrical, vaudeville, and concert artists (1,816), and for domestic servants and nurses (1,540). Other foreign workers admitted were those required to set up new machinery or to teach new

processes to British workers. In the case of hotel and restaurant employees the admission of a foreigner was generally made conditional on the reciprocal employment of a British worker abroad to learn foreign methods and languages.

Relief Works

While the Ministry of Labour is not directly responsible for public works undertaken to relieve unemployment, it advises the departments which make grants to local authorities for this purpose as to the extent of unemployment and compiles returns of the number of relief work schemes and of workers employed on them. During 1925 the Ministry dealt with 2,642 applications and enquiries from the Unemployment Grants Committee and 128 from the Ministry of Transport. On 28 December 1925 the number of men employed on schemes under the Ministry of Transport was 16,622 and on those under the Unemployment Grants Committee 33,280.

At this point some information may be given as to the work of the Unemployment Grants Committee, a body responsible to the Treasury and not to the Ministry of Labour, which issued its fifth report in July 1925[1]. The number of relief work schemes submitted by local authorities to the Committee during the year 1925-1926 showed a substantial decrease from the preceding year. This is accounted for partly by the difficulty, in the sixth consecutive winter of unemployment, of finding further public works which could be put in hand to relieve unemployment, and partly by the more restrictive policy adopted by the Committee from December 1925. The reason for this restriction was the fear of merely subsidising work which local authorities would in any case have had to carry out immediately, and also of diverting capital from the normal industrial developments which might be looked for. During the year the Committee considered 1,764 schemes of a total value of £18,563,000, and approved 966 of a total cost of £11,809,122. The estimated amount of employment provided by the schemes approved (excluding 11 from public utility companies) was 447,404 man-months.

During the whole course of its existence since December 1920 the Committee has approved for state assistance more than 11,900 schemes of a total value of more than £104 million. The amount of state aid authorised was about £40 million. The schemes are estimated to have provided nearly four million man-months of employment directly and at least an equal amount indirectly on the preparation of materials, etc.

Unemployment Insurance

Some changes in legislation and administration were made during the year. The Unemployment Insurance Act, 1925, restored the waiting

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[1] Unemployment Grants (Viscount St. Davids) Committee: *Fifth (Interim) Report of Proceedings from 25 June 1925 to 24 June 1926.* London, H.M. Stationery Office, 1926. 21 pp.

period of six instead of three days, continued the Minister's power to waive the requirement of at least 30 contributions as a condition of benefit, and made the grant of extended benefit once more discretionary[1]. In the exercise of his discretion, the Minister of Labour restored the administrative rules in force before the 1924 Act disqualifying certain classes of workers (chiefly those with other means of support) for extended benefit.

The rates of contribution remained unchanged during 1925, but as from 4 January 1926, concurrently with the introduction of the extended scheme of health and pensions insurance, contributions to unemployment insurance were lowered in respect of an insured man from 10d. to 8d. for the employer and from 9d. to 7d. for the worker, similar reductions being made for women, boys and girls.

The scope of the insurance scheme was not altered during the year, but the report notes certain important decisions of the courts determining the insurability or otherwise of certain occupations.

The number of authorities and public utility companies holding certificates excepting their employees from unemployment insurance on 31 December 1925 was 2,009. The latest figures as to the number of workers so excepted are those for 30 June 1923, when the total was 496,604. The total number of exemptions (releasing the worker but not the employer from the obligation to pay contributions) at the end of 1925 was 38,472, of which 7,172 had been granted during the year.

Trade unions and similar associations may make an " arrangement " to administer unemployment insurance for their members on condition that they pay supplementary benefits in addition to the statutory payments. At the end of 1925 the number of associations with " arrangements " in operation was 148, with a total membership of about 1,103,000.

The Unemployment Insurance (No. 2) Act, 1924, repealed the provision of the principal Act of 1920 under which insured workers on reaching the age of 60 might receive a refund of their contributions. Nevertheless, those who had already qualified for the refund might still claim it, while those who before 7 July 1924 had reached the age of 50 and paid at least 50 contributions might claim proportionate compensatory payments. A large number of claims were received during 1925, as shown below, causing a considerable drain on the Unemployment Fund.

	Refunds at 60	Compensatory payments
Number of claims made	160,201	655,547
Number of claims allowed	106,662	584,276
Total amount allowed	£685,358	£1,481,747
Average per claim	£6 8s. 5d.	£2 10s. 7d.

Long-standing Claims to Benefit

The continued industrial depression has naturally resulted in some claimants drawing benefit for very long periods. For the country as a

[1] The provisions as to the waiting period and extended benefit were a simple reversal of the provisions of the 1924 (No. 2) Act.

whole the proportion of persons in receipt of standard and extended benefit respectively was 52.4 and 47.6 per cent. Among men the recipients of extended benefit outnumbered those of standard benefit by 2.4 per cent. At Openshaw (Lancashire), where there was severe depression in the engineering industry, about 75 per cent. of the men's claims in August 1925 were for extended benefit, and of the total of 3,392 extended benefit claims 40 per cent. were authorised for 300 days and over and 36 per cent. for 200 to 300 days.

The report discusses the problem presented by unemployed workers who have exhausted all their standard benefit and drawn a great deal of extended benefit, while having small hope of qualifying for standard benefit again, even with a revival of trade. The first class mentioned is that of elderly men almost past work, who would have difficulty in getting any employment except at the height of an industrial boom. " Unfortunately for them the period of trade depression and old age have coincided. " Another difficult class is that of casual and intermittent workers, who also would be fully absorbed into employment only at a time of great trade activity. Men disabled in the war or in industry, again, are often unemployed for very long periods, largely owing to their disabilities, but also sometimes, it is suggested, because compensation payments (which do not disqualify for unemployment benefit) have diminished the incentive to look for work.

This question of incentive is again raised in connection with a further series of difficult cases enumerated by the Ministry as follows :

(1) unskilled workers, in whose case it is very difficult to say whether they are " genuinely seeking work ", or not ;

(2) workers relying unduly on a return to their previous employer ;

(3) men in rural areas, where the possibility of cultivating allotments, etc. and the lower cost of living may decrease the incentive to look for work ;

(4) young workers from 18 to 20, for whom the rate of benefit is dangerously near the wages which they could earn if employed and may thus decrease the incentive to find work ;

(5) married women, many of whom are discharged on their marriage and sometimes do not desire regular work.

Supervision and Enforcement

As with most social legislation, a question frequently raised is how far it is abused or evaded and what steps are taken to prevent such offences. Payment of contributions to unemployment insurance is enforced by visits to employers where contributions are in arrears, civil proceedings to recover arrears, and prosecutions in serious cases. During the year 160,684 employers of over a million workers were visited and £241,413 recovered in arrears. Convictions were secured in 650 out of 663 prosecutions.

The questions round which the greatest controversy centres in Great Britain is the administration of benefit and the machinery for verifying the *bona fides* of claimants. If the right to standard benefit is questioned, cases may be referred first to the Chief Insurance Officer, then to a court

of referees, and in the last instance to the Umpire, the final court of appeal[1]. The numbers of cases considered and disallowed by these authorities during 1925 were as follows :

Authority	Claims considered	Claims disallowed
Chief Insurance Officer	603,061	442,051
Courts of referees	144,025	90,026
Umpire	4,683	3,089

The relative importance of the various reasons for disallowance is interesting. Of the total claims disallowed, 34 per cent. were refused because the claimant was not genuinely seeking work, 25 per cent. because he left his employment voluntarily, 18 per cent. because he lost his employment through misconduct, 10 per cent. because he refused suitable employment, and 4 per cent. because he was involved in a trade dispute. This last percentage does not give a fair idea of the importance of the trade disputes disqualification, since most of the disallowances under this head refer to test cases affecting a much larger number of individuals than the figure suggests.

Claims to extended benefit are dealt with by the local employment committees. During the year the committees considered 3,449,067 claims, disallowed 458,234, and postponed 26,572 ; thus the vast majority of claims were allowed. The restoration of the Minister's discretion in the grant of extended benefit in August 1925 gave rise to considerable controversy, and it is interesting to learn that the total number of claims disallowed in the exercise of this discretion from 25 August 1925 to 11 January 1926 was 73,604.

Apart from the machinery for determining claims, there is a constant scrutiny of current claims to verify the claimants' title to benefit. It is part of the regular work of local offices to investigate week by week a certain number of cases with this in view. During the year 620,500 cases were so investigated, and as a result benefit was disallowed in 38,900. Officials of the divisional offices also visit each local office at least once a year, and during the year ending 17 October 1925 these inspections resulted in the special examination of 72,000 claims. In all but 2,500 there were no defects in the claimant's title, and even so the defects were not always such as to disqualify for benefit.

In addition to such routine examination, special investigations are undertaken from time to time. One such enquiry was carried out in May 1925 to ascertain : (1) how far unemployment benefit was being paid to workers disqualified by the receipt of sickness benefit or an old-age pension ; (2) how far married men were claiming dependants' benefit for wives who were themselves in employment or not maintained by their husbands. Of 5,294 cases examined, there were only 29 in which the claimant appeared to have drawn sickness and unemployment benefit concurrently. Of 821 claimants over 70, only five appeared to have drawn unemployment benefit while in receipt of an old-age pension. With reference to the question of dependent wives 5,918 claims

[1] The more important decisions given by the Umpire during the year are summarised in an appendix.

were considered, but in only 49 cases was it found that the wife was or had recently been employed, and in 32 that she was not in fact being maintained.

Another special investigation was carried out from June to September 1925. The total number of claims covered at the centres selected was about 192,000, of which 52,000 were closely investigated. As a result extended benefit was disallowed in 6,466 cases, standard benefit in 2,389, and dependants' benefit in 48.

As may be seen, every safeguard against wrongful claims to benefit is provided, and where fraud is discovered criminal proceedings are instituted. During 1925 the number of persons prosecuted was 2,034, a small increase over 1924 (1,913), but the number of serious cases was slightly less. The most frequent offence (nearly 50 per cent. of the total) was claiming benefit while actually in employment, and 40 per cent. of the cases related to fraudulent claims for dependants' benefit. Of the persons prosecuted, 62.6 per cent. were fined, 24.4 per cent. imprisoned, 7.2 per cent. bound over or admonished, while the summonses were dismissed in only 5.8 of the cases.

Finance

The income of the Unemployment Fund remained on the same basis during 1925, but expenditure increased owing to the continued severity of unemployment and the great volume of refunds and compensatory payments referred to earlier. The figures are as follows :

I. *Receipts*

	£
Contributions from workers and employers	37,601,534
State contribution	13,257,457
Contributions for the armed forces	265,512
Other receipts	15,481
Total	£51,139,984

II. *Payments*

	£
Benefit	45,822,529
Refunds and compensatory payments	1,516,863
Cost of administration	4,902,237
Interest and other payments	514,150
Total	£52,755,779

The average weekly payment per head to persons actually drawing benefit during the year was 18s.2d., and the average weekly number of persons paid benefit was about 977,600.

Owing to the increased drain on the Unemployment Fund its debt to the Treasury, which at the end of 1924 was £5,410,000, had reached £8,100,000 by 30 June 1925, and at the end of the year stood at £7,595,000.

Settlement of Industrial Disputes

Statistics of industrial disputes involving stoppages of work in Great Britain and Northern Ireland show that 604 disputes began in 1925, as compared with 710 in 1924. All disputes in progress during the year involved 445,300 workers (about 40,600 of these were thrown out of work by a dispute though not actually taking part in it), as against 616,100 in 1924. The total number of working days lost was 7,966,000 (8,424,000 in 1924). Coal mining heads the list of industries with 3,453,000 days lost, followed by textiles with 3,173,000 days.

During the year 257 industrial disputes were settled with or without a stoppage with the assistance of the Ministry. Of these 181 were referred to arbitration, 73 were dealt with by conciliation methods, and in 3 cases courts of enquiry were set up. The more important decisions or settlements are fully described in the report.

The majority (165) of arbitration cases were handled by the Industrial Court. An important development in the functions of the Court was their extension to cover disputes in the Civil Service regarding pay, hours, and leave of classes of civil servants (not individuals) with initial salaries not exceeding £700 a year (excluding bonus). For these purposes the Court consists of a chairman and one representative each of the Chancellor of the Exchequer and of the staff side of the National Whitley Council for the Civil Service, not themselves civil servants or officials of civil servants' associations. Twenty Civil Service cases were heard by the Court during the year.

Another addition to the functions of the Court arose out of the Beet Sugar Subsidy Act, which provides that disputes as to the wages to be paid in accordance with the Fair Wages Resolution of the House of Commons shall be referred to the Industrial Court. One case of this nature was considered during 1925.

Among important decisions of the Court were several dealing with classification and pay in railway workshops[1] and in dockyards and other industrial establishments owned by the Government.

Of the conciliation settlements 11 occurred in the transport industry, and 8 each in engineering and shipbuilding, the food and drink trades, and textiles. In two cases "courts of investigation" were set up. The first of these disputes arose in the wool textile industry, where simultaneously the employers claimed a reduction and the workers an increase in wages. The court pointed out that the real point of difference between the parties was whether the depression undeniably existing in the industry was a passing phase or likely to continue. It decided that no case had been established for either reduction or increase in wages and recommended the maintenance of existing rates until 1 January 1927.

The second case considered by a court of investigation occurred in the Scottish shale-oil industry, where the workers refused to accept a reduction in wages on the ground that the employers could afford to

[1] See summary of earlier report, pp. 855-856.

continue existing rates if they also took into account the profits earned by their second line of business — refining imported crude oil. The court of investigation was set up to afford the workers an opportunity of proving that the two businesses were legally and financially one and the employers an equal opportunity of disproving it.

Courts of enquiry were set up in connection with three important disputes. The first concerned the wages and conditions of employment of engineering workers employed on the erection of steel houses. There was no dispute between the employers and workers actually engaged in this work, but both employers and workers in the building industry objected that the work should be governed by building trade conditions and a stoppage was threatened. The court found that the methods of manufacture and erection of steel houses involved a substantial departure from traditional building methods, that the men engaged thereon would otherwise have been unemployed owing to depression in the engineering trades, and that conditions of employment should be left to agreement between the engineering trade unions and the manufacturers of the steel houses.

The second court of enquiry was set up to investigate the dispute in the coal-mining industry which broke out in June 1924, and its findings are given in some detail. The importance of this enquiry was subsequently overshadowed by that of the Royal Commission set up to make a full investigation of the industry while work was temporarily resumed with the aid of a government subsidy. The third enquiry, which dealt with a threatened dispute among certain railway shopmen, was still in progress at the end of the year.

Trade Boards

The scope of the Trade Boards system was slightly enlarged during 1925 by the inclusion of the drift-net mending trade, for which a new board was set up, while in retail bespoke tailoring two boards, for England and Wales and for Scotland respectively, were set up in place of a single board. Investigations into various branches of the distributive and catering trades were carried out to ascertain whether there were grounds for bringing them under the Acts.

Eleven boards submitted 14 new sets of wage rates, of which 7 involved all-round increases, ranging from $^1/_4$ d. to 1d. an hour for the lowest-paid men and from $\frac{1}{3}$ d. to $^1/_2$d. for the lowest-paid women ; the remainder effected changes of detail or extensions to other groups of workers.

Rates for learners are lower than for adults, on condition that they are given definite training, while those for indentured apprentices are lower still. The number of learners registered with trade boards at the end of 1925 was 29,185. In the absence of special training young workers are supposed to be paid adult rates, but this has often proved impracticable and some boards have fixed intermediate rates for young workers who are not technically learners. The number of permits of exemption authorising infirm workers to receive less than the minimum

rates fixed was 2,320 at the end of the year ; these permits apply almost exclusively to time work.

The inspectorate having been enlarged, it proved possible to carry out a larger number of inspections than in previous years. The number of wage inspections was 9,958 (5,076 in 1924) and of other visits 9,585 (4,800 in 1924) ; the workers covered by trade board rates in the establishments inspected numbered 111,366. Cases of underpayment of wages amounting to £48,507 in respect of 7,426 workers in 2,564 establishments were discovered. Other offences were detected in 11,318 establishments. Complaints received numbered 3,181. Civil proceedings on behalf of workers to recover arrears of wages were taken in 8 cases and criminal proceedings in 27, all successfully. The penalties imposed totalled £518 15s., with £5 18s. costs.

Wages Changes

The general wage statistics compiled by the Ministry show the number of workers affected by changes in wage rates reported to the Ministry and the total net increase or decrease thereby effected in weekly wages. In the previous year 3,019,000 workers obtained increases and 482,000 sustained decreases, the net result being a total increase of £553,900 in weekly wages. In 1925, on the other hand, there was a net decrease of £79,800, increases having been secured by 870,000 workers and decreases sustained by 860,000.

Dock Labour in Queensland

The employment and unemployment of dockers, which present a grave problem in the ports of every country, have recently been considered afresh by a Queensland committee of enquiry appointed as a result of a serious dispute between shipowners and waterside workers in that State[1].

The crux of the whole problem is the method by which labour is selected and engaged. Ships arrive in harbour at quite irregular periods, and the labour needed for loading and unloading must be engaged on the spot for each cargo in accordance with its size and nature. Each dock or harbour thus tends to collect a large reserve of workers waiting for the chance of work at any time, none of whom can be assured of continuous employment. Since, in addition, the work is mainly unskilled, it is not surprising that the total supply of workers generally exceeds the

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[1] Queensland : *Report of the Committee appointed to enquire into the Causes and Extent of Unemployment in the Calling of Waterside Workers in the Various Ports of Queensland, and into other matters incidental thereto.* Brisbane, Govt. Printer, 1926. 34 pp.

maximum demand at any time, and that earnings are low as well as irregular. Every attempt to deal with the problem of casual dock labour therefore involves some method of limiting the total number of workers and securing an equal distribution of work among them.

In Queensland the conditions of employment of dockers are governed by an award of the Industrial Arbitration Court, issued in December 1921, which prescribes *inter alia* that :

Employers shall make every effort to secure an equal distribution of the work amongst the members of the Federation at each port.

Preference of employment shall be given to members of the Queensland branches of the Waterside Workers' Federation of Australia, provided that the men seeking employment are competent workmen and do their work to the satisfaction of the employer.

The workers complained that the employers did not attempt to distribute work equally and used the proviso regarding efficiency as a pretext for unfair discrimination. Towards the end of 1925, therefore, the Waterside Workers' Federation attempted to enforce a rotary system of engagement under the control of the trade union branches. The shipowners objected, and the result was a complete stoppage of work in some ports. The Government then appointed a committee, consisting of one representative each of employers and workers and an impartial chairman, to enquire into the following matters :

(*a*) The causes and extent of unemployment in the calling of waterside workers in the various ports of Queensland.

(*b*) The most effective measures which should be taken for reducing or eliminating unemployment in the said calling throughout the State.

(*c*) Generally the most effective method which may be adopted for securing the equitable distribution of the work available among the workers following the said calling in all ports, and particularly (i) as to whether a rotary system of engagement of waterside workers could be effectively operated to provide an equitable distribution of available work without involving an excessive increase in the cost of handling cargo ; (ii) as to the general effect of the institution of a rotary system from the point of view of employers and workers.

(*d*) Any other matters connected with the calling of a waterside worker which may be calculated to assist in the establishment of harmonious relations between workers and employers and the preservation of industrial peace, and which also may be considered to assist in securing the following : (i) a just method of allocation of the work ; (ii) expeditious, efficient, and economic handling of all classes of waterside work ; (iii) effective settlement of questions or disputes which may arise without involving stoppage of work.

Under the rotary system the local branch of the union supplies the shipowners with workers as required from its lists of members, selecting men in strict rotation, so that no one shall be engaged for a second job until all those on the list have been engaged once. Criticisms of this scheme, mainly from the employers, were to the effect that the system was inefficient and costly. It did not equalise earnings among the different workers, as one might be engaged for a small job and another for a long one. With a mechanical system of rotation the employers could not be certain of getting efficient men for the particular job in hand, and there was delay in obtaining them.

A less complete form of union control is secured in ports where the stevedore or foreman, in selecting workers from those who attend at a given spot for engagement, is obliged to take first the "preference men" listed by the union, subsequently making up his numbers from the remaining workers as he likes.

A system which appears to have given general satisfaction on both sides is one where each shipping company has regular gangs of men which are employed in rotation. Casual vacancies in gangs are filled by "jumpers" (men not on any regular list), and a gang not needed by its regular employer may seek work elsewhere. The earnings of the gangs under this system appear to be fairly uniform, and the only objection to the system is that a "jumper" may earn more than regular members of the gangs.

The "bull" or "star" gang system of selection was the subject of the keenest complaints from the workers. While the stevedores ostensibly pick up workers on the stands actually they always select the same men from their private lists, and others can only get employment occasionally when the regular men are absent.

The terms of the Arbitration Court's award are thus not uniformly observed, and both parties maintained that the variety of local conditions demands some variation in methods of engagement. The situation is complicated in most ports by the open hostility between employers and workers; the problem before the Committee, in fact, was as much one of industrial relations as of casual labour.

Limitation of the supply of labour has not yet been achieved, as the Waterside Workers' Federation is unwilling to restrict its membership or the movements of its members. Owing to the great mobility of labour, both geographically and industrially, in Queensland, there is always the danger that a port where conditions are good or work is plentiful may be flooded with workers from other towns or industries, whereby employment is made even more irregular and earnings are still further depressed. At the same time, the shipowners sometimes complained of a shortage of labour.

In addition to the irregularity of the work and the large reserve of labour, Queensland dockers also suffer from seasonal unemployment. Queensland is mainly dependent on agriculture and the primary industries, such as sugar, timber, etc., which are obviously seasonal, and thus a larger number of dockers is required to handle cargoes during the busy season than can be employed during the rest of the year. In some ports there is a drop of from 40 to 70 per cent. in the number of workers required, and the length of the slack season varies from two to six months. The seasonal nature of the work involves the transfer of workers from other districts during the busy season, and there is often friction between these and the local residents.

There are 12 ports in Queensland, employing in all just over 3,000 workers. Brisbane is the largest, with 1,350 workers, and Townsville is the only other port employing more than 500. Though the actual numbers involved are small, conditions vary so much in different ports that the Committee had to consider each separately. It is difficult to give any general summary of the Committee's recommendations,

since these vary with each port and, in addition, each member of the Committee signed a separate report.

The Chairman's recommendations, endorsed by the workers' representative, involve changes of detail rather than radical alterations. Where the system at present in force appears to be working well, he recommends its continuance whatever its nature. Elsewhere he suggests certain changes, such as the inclusion of a greater proportion of the workers in regular gangs, preference to local residents over newcomers from the outside, greater consultation between employers and workers before changes in the system are made, more equal distribution of work by the employers in certain ports. Only in two cases does he propose a definite change. In Brisbane the size of the port has caused some confusion, the same men being frequently listed in different gangs; he therefore suggests that the selection of gangs should be centralised in the hands of one or two officials, and that the trade union should be allowed to nominate a certain proportion of the men in each gang from among those who have had no employment in the previous week. At Bowen, where relations between employers and workers appear to be very strained, the Chairman recommends that all the workers should be organised in regular gangs, the gangs to be employed in rotation, with periodical comparison of earnings to secure equalisation; a joint board with an independent chairman should be set up to deal with complaints and discharges.

In general the Chairman criticises the obvious opportunities for unfairness inherent in some of the systems enforced by the employers, and the tendency on the part of the workers to "go slow" and thus justify the employers' objection to the rotary system.

The employers' representative gives his own explanation of the situation, and criticises the rotary system very severely. At the same time he is forced to admit that he cannot devise any system of engagement which would be both practicable and acceptable to employers and workers. In general he recommends that joint boards of employers and workers in each port should devise systems of engagement suited to local conditions and should also deal with disputes. He criticises the lack of control by trade union headquarters over the local branches, and the activities of "extremists" in stirring up trouble. For some of the northern ports he suggests a system of "safeguarded contract", by which a body of workers would contract to load or unload an entire cargo or set of cargoes for a fixed overhead payment.

STATISTICS

Employment and Prices

In the tables below are given for various countries the most recent statistics of employment and unemployment and of the cost of living and retail prices in comparison with those for previous dates.

Employment and Unemployment

Table I giving unemployment statistics shows for certain countries the percentage of workers unemployed. In some cases these percentages are based on data compiled by the trade unions in respect of their members, while in other cases they refer to the workers covered by unemployment insurance laws. For some countries for which no such data are available information is given as to the numbers registered at various dates at the employment exchanges as unemployed or the number of unemployed workers who have received assistance. Table II gives index numbers of employment for certain countries.

In the *Review* for July 1924 and later months an outline was given of the methods by which the statistics given in the tables are compiled, together with particulars of the original sources in which they are published.

TABLE I. STATISTICS OF UNEMPLOYMENT

Date (end of month)	Germany				Australia		Austria	Belgium			
	Trade unionists				Trade unionists		Compulsory insurance	Unemployment insurance societies			
	Wholly unemployed		Partially unemployed		Number unemployed	Per cent.	Number unemployed in receipt of benefit	Wholly unemployed		Partially unemployed	
	Number	Per cent.	Number	Per cent.				Number	Per cent.	Number	Per cent.
1925											
March	211,259	5.8	158,681	5.1	37,836	9.3	175,580	9,414	1.5	33,509	5.5
June	130,249	3.5	163,461	5.2	36,490	10.2	113,119	6,483	1.0	29,108	4.7
Sept.	168,657	4.5	268,186	8.5	29,861	7.9	119,004	4,758	0.8	11,034	1.9
Dec.	406,253	19.4	659,949	19.8	34,287	8.1	207,835	16,897	2.8	27,494	4.7
1926											
Jan.	815,434	22.6	818,637	22.6	*	*	231,361	16,159	2.7	32,017	5.4
Feb.	786,263	22.0	771,405	21.6	*	*	228,763	9,616	1.6	18,209	3.1
March	727,312	21.4	736,649	21.7	34,161	8.2	202,394	8,489	1.4	16,573	2.8
April	654,537	18.6	673,993	19.1	*	*	173,115	7,395	1.2	11,803	2.0
May	639,751	18.1	641,780	18.2	*	*	151,821	6,075	1.1	12,643	2.1
June	627,196	18.1	591,536	17.1	24,920	6.7	150,981	5,200	0.9	13,148	2.2
July	599,917	17.7	563,823	16.6	*	*	152,495	5,158	0.9	10,233	1.7
Aug.	567,541	16.7	511,685	15.0	*	*	151,054	7,268	1.2	16,530	2.8
Sept.	513,864	15.2	427,380	12.7	32,871	7.6	148,111	6,818	1.1	14,821	2.5
Oct.	476,952	14.2	343,303	10.2	*	*	151,183	8,088	1.4	13,295	2.2
Nov.	484,978	14.2	284,774	8.3	*	*	168,757	8,217	1.4	14,907	2.5
Number on which latest percentages are based	3,414,849				434,521		*	601,052			

The sign * signifies "no figures published". The sign — signifies "figures not yet received".

TABLE I *(cont.)*

Date (end of month)	Canada		Denmark		Esthonia	Finland	France
	Trade unionists		Trade unionists		Number unemployed remaining on live register	Number of unemployed registered	Number of unemployed in receipt of benefit
	Number unemployed	Per cent.	Number unemployed	Per cent.			
1925							
March	13,159	8.5	40,055	14.7	2,867	3,502	1,016
June	9,578	6.1	24,135	9.1	1,771	1,155	626
Sept.	8,374	5.7	28,509	10.6	883	2,011	618
Dec.	11,716	7.9	85,944	31.7	3,213	2,176	645
1926							
Jan.	11,906[1]	8.1	81,100[1]	30.1	3,543	3,832	547
Feb.	11,993[1]	8.1	74,100[1]	27.5	2,444	3,462	713
March	11,069	7.3	57,700[1]	21.4	1,916	2,222	543
April	11,093	7.3	44,700[1]	16.6	2,249	1,961	442
May	7,442	4.9	39,900[1]	14.8	1,839	1,273	386
June	5,965	4.1	42,600[1]	15.8	1,051	924	489
July	3,226[1]	2.3	45,800[1]	17.0	893	949	342
Aug.	3,384[1]	2.5	46,900[1]	17.0	731	1,212	369
Sept.	4,837	3.3	45,300[1]	16.8	811	1,325	335
Oct.	—	2.6	—	18.6	2,309	1,813	429
Nov.	—	—	—	22.1	—	2,330	571
Number on which latest percentages are based	146,202		268,964		•	•	•

TABLE I *(cont.)*

Date (end of month)	Great Britain and Northern Ireland				Hungary		Irish Free State		Italy	
	Trade unionists		Compulsory insurance		Trade unionists		Compulsory insurance		Number of unemployed registered	
	Number unemployed	Per cent.	Number unemployed	Per cent.	Number unemployed	Per cent.	Number unemployed	Per cent.	Wholly unempl.	Partially unempl.
1925										
March	88,551	9.0	1,307,037	11.1	36,873	20.5	59.362	23.3	142,552	14,282
June	120,754	12.3	1,406,155	11.9	34,015	19.0	44,705	17.6	85,532	6,944
Sept.	111,910	11.4	1,423,566	12.0	25,488	14.3	29,837	11.7	82,764	7,223
Dec.	107,346	11.0	1,243.087	10.4	26,711	16.4	35,858	14.1	122,200	8,870
1926										
Jan.	103,051	10.6	1,31 7,535	11.0	28,378	17.4	38,161	15.0	156,139	9,284
Feb.	101,870	10.4	1,247,823	10.4	29,135	18.7	38,670	15.2	125,803	8,016
March	99,271	10.1	1,171,136	9.8	29,218	19.1	34,331	13.5	109,471	8,333
April	•	10.0	1,093,829	9.1	28,776	18.8	32,935	13.0	98,216	6,793
May	109,947	13.2	1,719,369	14.3	27,598	18.5	32,668	12.8	98,490	8,600
June	107,597	12.9	1,751,133	14.6	25,558	16.7	31,248	12.3	83,264	6,650
July	108.030	13.2	1.737 260	14.6	24,041	15.7	27,740	11.3	79,678	26,756
Aug.	110,520	13.3	1,684,507	14.2	22,756	15.0	25,390	10.3	83,000	26,634
Sept.	112,782	13.6	1,648,322	13.9	19,849	13.1	25,063	10.2	89,434	14,519
Oct.	112,195	13.6	1,636,886	13.6	18,680	12.4	25,499	10.4	112,922	10 839
Nov.	108,202	13.2	1,630,142	13.5	18,576	12.3	26,984	11.0	148,821	6,618
Number on which latest percentages are based	818,806		12,041,000		153,000		246,134		•	

[1] Approximate figures. [2] Provisional figures.
The sign • signifies " no figures published ". The sign — signifies " figures not yet received ".

TABLE I (*cont.*)

Date (end of month)	Latvia	Norway		New Zealand		Netherlands	
	Number unemployed remaining on live register	Trade unionists		Trade unionists		Unemployment insurance societies	
		Number unempl.	Per cent.	Number unemployed	Per cent.	Number unemployed	Per cent.
1925							
March	4,314	4,018	11.1	*	*	25,718	9.4
June	1,169	3,256	8 9	*	*	18,243	6 6
Sept.	910	4,934	13.5	*	*	21,182	7.7
Dec.	5,097	9,363	26.1	2,129[1]	5.4[1]	44,660	16.0
1926							
Jan.	4,990	8,305	25.5	*	*	48,255	17.8
Feb.	4,702	8,612	25.0	2,357	5.0	27,649	10.5
March	4,067	8,739	25.9	*	*	21,363	7.9
April	2,000	9,137	26.0	*	*	18,414	6.5
May	1,383	8,438	23.7	3,049	6.6	17,904	6.3
June	936	7,931	22.1	*	*	16,983	5.9
July	722	7,242	20.4	*	*	19,683	6.9
Aug.	897	—	21.4	3,912	8.3	20,805	7.2
Sept.	932	—	22.3	*	*	20,695	7.2
Oct.	2,430	—	24.4	*	*	20,400[2]	7.8[2]
Nov.	5,074	—	—	—	—	—	—
Number on which latest percentages are based	*	34,968		47,142		262,760[2]	

TABLE I (*cont.*)

Date (end of month)	Poland	Russia	Sweden		Switzerland		Czechoslovakia	
	Number of unemployed registered	Number unemployed remaining on live register	Trade unionists		Number wholly unemployed registered	Unemployment funds	Compulsory insurance	
			Number unemployed	Per cent.		Per cent. unemployed	Number unemployed	Per cent.
1925								
March	183,730	*	25,824	12.0	10,185	*	*	*
June	171,650	1,100,000	17,709	8.2	8,084	*	6,086	0.6
Sept.	195,044	1 055,000	19,802	8.5	10,356	*	9,775	0.9
Dec.	311,090	951,200	44,128	19.5	17,027	*	17,196	1.6
1926								
Jan.	359,119	988,000	34,601	15.8	20,525		22,738	2.1
Feb.	358,002	1,005,600	32,695	14.4	18,138	*	25,333	2.3
March	345,011	1,056,400	31,712	14.7	14,307	2.7	27,535	2.5
April	320,512	1,070,900	29,220	12.2	11,320	*	30,056	2.7
May	304,113	1,114,200	22,413	9.7	10,703	*	33,670	3.0
June	288,510	1,065,500	22,715	9.5	10,272	2.4	40,034	3.4
July	264,737	1,030,100	20,206	8.5	11,013	*	46,052	4.1
Aug.	244,552	1,023,700	19,511	8.2	11.818	*	46,129	—
Sept.	213,690	—	22,114	9.1	12,803	2.8	—	—
Oct.	196,586	—	28,290	11.5	14,253	*	—	—
Nov.	—	—	—	13,0	16,366	*	—	—
Number on which latest percentages are based	*	*	247,893		*	163,448	1,122,814	

[1] Figures for November. [2] Provisional figures.

The sign * signifies "no figures published". The sign — signifies "figures not yet received"

TABLE II. STATISTICS OF EMPLOYMENT

Date (end of month)	Germany[1]	Canada[1]	Esthonia	United States	Switzerland
	Index number of employment				
	Membership of sickness funds in Dec. 1921 = 100	Number employed on 17 Jan. 1920 = 100	Number employed in preceding month = 100	Average number employed in 1923 = 100	Number employed in Sept. 1924 = 100
1925					
March	103.6	87.2	*	92.3	94.1
June	104.6	96.8	*	90.1	98.8
Sept.	108.6	98.3	*	90.9	96.1
Dec.	96.4	89.6	*	92.6	94.8
1926					
Jan.	93.4	90.7	100.0	92.3	*
Feb.	93.5	91.5	101.2	93.3	*
March	94.4	91.4	99.6	93.7	95.2
April	97.7	94.3	97.9	92.8	*
May	98.8	101.0	106.0	91.7	*
June	98.9	103.7	100.9	91.3	96.5
July	99.1	104.2	—	89.8	*
Aug.	98.8	104.9	—	90.7	*
Sept.	99.5	105.2	—	92.2	95.3
Oct.	—	—	—	—	*
Nov.	—	—	—	—	*
Number of persons on which latest figures are based	13,763,971	865,013	32,874	3,091,346	186,232

[1] The figures relate to the 1st of the following month.

The sign * signifies "no figures published". The sign — signifies "figures not yet received"

Cost of Living and Retail Prices

Tables I to V give for a number of countries index numbers of the cost of living, food, clothing, heating and lighting, and rent. The sources and methods of compilation of the statistics are given in the *Review* for July 1924 and later months.

The tables containing the index numbers of the cost of living and of food have been rearranged, so as to make it possible to include figures for Chile, Danzig, Lithuania, Peru, and Roumania, in addition to those previously published here. The index numbers of wholesale prices, which are published regularly in the *Monthly Bulletin of Statistics* of the League of Nations, will not in future be given here.

TABLE I. COST-OF-LIVING INDEX NUMBERS

(Base, as far as possible, July 1914 = 100)

Country	South Africa (Union)	Germany	Australia	Austria [1]	Belgium [2]	Bulgaria	Canada	Chile [3]	Denmark	Danzig	Egypt
Towns and localities	9	72	6	Vienna	59	12	60	Chile	100	Danzig	Cairo
1925 Nov.	131	141	*	—	141	2784	154	192	*	142	164
Dec.	131	141	—	100	143	2871	155	186	194	138	164
1926 Jan.	131	140	*	100	139	2852	154	185	*	135	162
Feb	131	139	*	99	140	2849	154	179	*	134	163
Mar.	131	138	158	98	137	2796	153	179	*	132	163
April	131	140	*	98	140	2726	152	179	*	134	162
May	132	140	*	97	147	2888	150	181	*	133	161
June	131	140	162	99	155	2793	150	183	184	133	159
July	130	142	*	98	174	2790	150	190	*	137	159
Aug.	130	142	*	99	182	2712	149	192	*	135	161
Sept.	130	142	158	99	179	—	148	187	*	135	160
Oct.	131	142	*	99	188	—	150	186	*	135	161
Nov.	—	144	*	99	196	—	—	184	*	136	156

Country	Esthonia [4]	United States [3]	Finland	France	Great Britain	Greece	Hungary [5]	India	Irish Free State	Italy	Latvia	Lithuania [6]
Towns and localities	Tallinn	32	21	Paris	630	Athens	Budapest	Bombay	105	Milan	Riga	84
1925 Nov.	136	*	1227	*	177	1610	14,274	155	*	643	116	147
Dec.	139	178	1197	421	175	1644	14,743	155	*	649	117	144
1926 Jan.	141	*	1166	*	173	1673	14,418	154	188	665	118	142
Feb.	140	*	1175	*	172	1664	14,625	155	*	661	118	142
Mar.	140	*	1172	451	168	1706	14,728	153	*	654	118	142
April	141	*	1163	*	167	1731	14,512	153	180	642	117	140
May	141	*	1159	*	168	1741	14,623	155	*	652	119	141
June	140	175	1175	485	170	1791	14,704	157	*	650	119	141
July	141	*	1183	*	170	1808	14,823	155	182	649	118	140
Aug.	141	*	1213	*	172	1818	14,538	155	*	652	115	139
Sept.	138	*	1203	539	174	1833	14,593	155	*	647	112	139
Oct.	—	*	1197	*	179	1862	14,883	154	189	672	—	139
Nov.	—	*	1193	*	179	1895	15,293	156	*	657	—	141

Country	Luxemburg	Norway	New Zealand	Netherlands [6]	Peru [3]	Poland	Roumania	Russia [3]	Sweden	Switzerland	Czechoslovakia
Towns and localities	Luxemburg	31	4	Amsterdam	Lima	Warsaw	Whole country	229	49	33	Prague
1925 Nov	535	*	164	*	196	157	3275	205	*	167	700
Dec.	528	236	*	177	197	173	3370	211	174	167	703
1926 Jan.	533	*	*	*	197	170	3335	220	*	166	707
Feb.	522	*	162	*	194	171	3320	225	*	164	699
Mar.	527	227	*	169	196	169	3310	229	173	163	687
April	546	*	*	*	193	176	3327	239	*	162	685
May	578	*	163	*	195	183	3370	233	*	162	692
June	609	221	*	171	197	183	3436	227	172	162	693
July	686	*	*	*	194	177	3340	228	*	162	718
Aug.	688	*	163	*	195	181	3455	222	*	161	722
Sept.	711	217	*	164	190	188	3460	220	171	161	722
Oct.	727	*	*	*	188	190	—	224	*	161	726
Nov	734	*	162	*	189	195	—	—	*	161	734

[1] 1925 = 100. [2] 1921 = 100. [3] 1913 = 100. [4] 1922 = 100. [5] 1913 = 1. [6] 1911-1913 = 100.
The sign * signifies " no figures published ". The sign — signifies " figures not yet received ".

TABLE II. FOOD INDEX NUMBERS

(Base, as far as possible, July 1914 = 100)

Country	South Africa (Union)	Germany	Australia	Austria [1]	Belgium [2]	Bulgaria	Canada	Denmark	Egypt	Spain	Esthonia [3]
Towns and localities	9	72	30	Vienna	59	12	60	100	Cairo	Madrid	Tallinn
1925 Nov	117	147	*	—	144	2769	156	*	164	186	136
Dec.	116	146	156	100	147	2866	157	177	162	183	141
1926 Jan	116	143	*	100	142	2853	155	*	161	188	144
Feb.	117	147	*	98	142	2855	154	*	159	183	143
Mar.	118	141	159	96	138	2799	153	*	161	185	144
April	119	142	*	96	142	2731	152	*	161	187	146
May	119	142	*	95	152	2909	149	*	160	183	145
June	118	143	162	98	161	2808	149	159	157	183	144
July	117	145	*	97	185	2803	150	*	158	186	146
Aug.	117	146	*	98	193	2720	147	*	159	178	144
Sept.	117	150	155	98	186	—	147	*	157	187	139
Oct.	—	145	*	98	197	—	148	*	160	190	—
Nov.	—	148	*	99	206	—	—	*	—	191	—

Country	United States	Finland	France		Great Britain	Greece	Hungary [4]	India	Irish Free State	Italy
Towns and localities	51	21	Paris	320	630	Athens	Budapest	Bombay	105	Milan
1925 Nov.	163	1164	444	471	174	1676	15,904	151	*	649
Dec.	162	1138	463	*	171	1718	16,714	151	*	660
1926 Jan.	160	1090	480	*	168	1760	16,087	150	187	681
Feb.	158	1106	495	503	165	1738	16,471	151	*	676
Mar.	156	1100	497	*	159	1805	16,668	150	*	654
April	159	1085	503	*	158	1821	16,322	150	175	645
May	157	1078	522	523	158	1817	16,122	152	*	664
June	156	1090	544	*	161	1870	16,298	155	*	657
July	153	1105	574	*	161	1849	16,546	153	174	654
Aug.	152	1153	587	610	162	1871	15,997	152	*	660
Sept.	155	1137	590	*	163	1890	16,189	153	*	652
Oct.	156	1126	624	*	169	1935	16,431	152	178	654
Nov.	158	1114	628	647	169	—	16,783	154	*	630

Country	Latvia	Norway	New Zealand	Peru [5]	Poland	Russia [5]	Sweden	Switzerland	Czechoslovakia
Towns and localities	Riga	31	4	Lima	Warsaw	220	49	33	Prague
1925 Nov.	98	223	156	172	178	186	165	168	790
Dec.	100	221	154	172	204	193	163	167	796
1926 Jan.	103	216	154	175	191	205	161	165	800
Feb.	103	212	153	170	195	211	159	163	787
Mar.	103	205	152	171	189	212	158	161	767
April	101	198	151	166	204	225	157	161	761
May	103	195	151	169	214	218	156	159	774
June	103	194	151	172	213	212	156	159	775
July	103	198	149	172	207	213	156	159	808
Aug	97	196	149	174	213	204	155	157	817
Sept.	94	193	148	167	227	200	156	158	816
Oct.	—	191	147	164	232	—	155	160	823
Nov.	—	186	146	166	244	—	155	159	837

[1] 1925 = 100 [2] 1921 = 100. [3] 1922 = 100. [4] 1913 = 1. [5] 1913 = 100.
The sign * signifies " no figures published ". The sign — signifies " figures not yet received ".

TABLES III TO V. INDEX NUMBERS OF CLOTHING, HEATING AND LIGHTING, AND RENT

Country	Germany	Austria[1]	Belgium[2]	Canada	Denmark	Spain	Estonia[3]	United States	Finland	France	Great Britain	Hungary[4]	India	Irish Free State	Italy	Latvia	Norway	New Zealand	Poland	Russia[5]	Sweden	Switzerland	Czechoslovakia
Towns and localities	72	Vienna	59		100	Madrid	Tallinn	32	21	Paris	630	Budapest	Bombay	105	Milan	Riga	31	4	Warsaw	229	49	83	Prague
TABLE III. CLOTHING INDEX NUMBERS *(Base, as far as possible, July 1914 = 100)*																							
1926 Jan.	171	100	144	*	230	*	123	*	1043	*	225	16,024	172	203	702	122	*	*	251	280	*	179	1001
Feb.	169	100	145	*	*	*	123	*	1043	*	225	18,552	174	*	702	122	*	157	251	290	*	179	1001
Mar.	168	99	144	*	*	*	123	*	1044	524	223	18,552	175	*	702	122	213	*	251	299	188	179	994
April	167	99	145	*	*	*	123	*	1049	*	223	18,502	170	205	702	122	*	*	251	302	*	172	994
May	165	99	151	*	*	*	123	*	1049	*	223	18,273	162	*	691	122	*	156	272	303	*	172	994
June	164	99	155	*	*	*	123	168	1047	577	220	18,273	160	*	692	122	207	*	272	301	187	172	994
July	163	99	167	*	210	*	123	*	1044	*	220	18,273	160	205	692	122	*	*	254	300	*	172	994
Aug.	161	99	173	*	*	*	123	*	1039	*	220	18,273	161	*	692	122	*	154	254	298	*	172	994
Sept.	160	98	179	*	*	*	123	*	1039	635	220	—	159	*	692	122	200	*	256	299	184	172	994
Oct.	160	98	186	*	*	*	—	*	1037	*	218	—	156	205	711	—	*	*	256	—	*	166	982
Nov.	—	98	191	*	*	*	—	*	1035	*	218	—	148	*	709	—	*	*	256	—	*	166	982
TABLE IV. HEATING AND LIGHTING INDEX NUMBERS *(Base, as far as possible, July 1914 = 100)*																							
1926 Jan.	143	100	114	184	227	171	94	*	1254	*	185	18,004	165	197	516	367	*	*	170	212	172	149	807
Feb.	143	100	116	180	*	173	94	*	1243	*	185	17,926	165	*	505	367	*	176	160	217	171	148	807
Mar.	143	100	115	179	*	168	94	*	1248	447	185	17 926	165	*	505	367	208	*	165	234	170	147	805
April	142	99	116	180	*	169	94	*	1248	*	185	17,674	164	195	505	367	*	*	160	238	170	146	805
May	140	99	118	177	*	171	94	*	1250	*	190	17,674	164	*	505	367	*	176	161	226	167	145	805
June	140	97	129	176	*	176	94	181	1254	452	195	17,590	164	*	512	367	201	*	160	214	168	145	805
July	141	99	142	175	215	177	90	*	1238	*	200	17,506	161	234	512	367	*	*	158	217	167	145	805
Aug.	141	100	159	175	*	174	95	*	1242	*	215	17,506	164	*	512	367	*	177	176	226	166	144	805
Sept.	143	100	163	176	*	177	99	*	1257	541	230	—	164	*	512	367	208	*	182	233	166	144	810
Oct.	144	103	179	—	*	172	—	*	1276	*	255	—	164	293	565	—	*	*	196	—	170	145	814
Nov.	—	105	197	—	*	—	—	*	1349	*	250	—	166	*	585	—	*	—	188	—	188	146	814
TABLE V. RENT INDEX NUMBERS *(Base, as far as possible, July 1914 = 100)*																							
1926 Jan.	91	100	153	142	178	*	174	*	1266	*	148	6,597	172	127	477	80	*	*	72	*	*	163	250
Feb.	91	102	153	143	*	*	174	*	1266	*	148	6,960	172	*	477	80	*	174	72	*	*	163	250
Mar.	91	105	153	143	*	*	174	*	1266	220	148	6,960	172	*	477	80	179	*	72	*	188	163	250
April	97	105	154	142	*	*	174	*	1266	*	149	6,960	172	127	477	80	*	*	76	*	*	163	256
May	99	109	154	143	*	*	174	*	1266	*	149	7,975	172	*	477	80	*	178	76	*	*	167	256
June	100	118	155	143	*	*	174	165	1334	250	150	7,975	172	*	477	80	179	*	76	*	188	167	256
July	101	118	157	143	185	*	174	*	1334	*	150	7,975	172	127	477	80	*	*	76	*	*	167	256
Aug.	105	118	161	142	*	*	174	*	1334	*	150	7,975	172	*	477	80	*	182	76	*	*	167	256
Sept.	105	118	162	142	*	*	174	*	1334	250	150	—	172	*	477	70	179	*	76	*	188	167	256
Oct.	105	118	165	—	*	*	—	*	1334	*	150	—	172	127	638	—	*	*	76	*	*	167	256
Nov.	—	118	166	—	*	*	—	*	1334	*	150	—	172	*	638	—	*	—	76	*	*	167	256

[1] 1925 = 100. [2] 1921 = 100. [3] 1922 = 100. [4] 1914 = 1. [5] 1913 = 100. The sign * signifies "no figures published". The sign — signifies "figures not yet received."

Wage Rates and Retail Prices in Various Cities

Cost of Food in Different Capitals

Figures are given below in continuation of similar data published in previous articles, showing the cost in dollars of the food items included in the unit of measure used in calculating the real wage index numbers[1]. The rates of exchange used in the calculations are averages of the rates for the month of September 1926. As stated in previous numbers of the *Review*, differences in the cost in dollars, although mainly the result of differences in the cost of the items in the various cities, are to some extent due to variations in the qualities of the food items included and to factors affecting the rates of exchange. The effects of fluctuations in the rates of exchange may account for certain unexpected results.

The costs in dollars in various cities at about 1 October 1926 of the unit of measure or basket of provisions were as follows :

	$		$
Lodz	1.05	Lisbon	1.79
Brussels	1.13	London	1.80
Warsaw	1.16	Dublin	1.86
Tallinn	1.19	Stockholm	1.86
Riga	1.35	Oslo	1.87
Amsterdam	1.39	Ottawa	1.92
Prague	1.41	Copenhagen	1.96
Rome	1.52	Sydney	2.07
Berlin	1.72	Philadelphia	2.41
Vienna	1.77		

Wage and Price Statistics for 1 October 1926

Tables I and II below, giving wage and price statistics in various cities at 1 October 1926 or the nearest date for which figures are available, are in continuation of corresponding tables published in the December number of the *Review*[2] which gave data generally for 1 September 1926. Information is given for 18 cities for wages and 19 for prices, the figures generally having been supplied to the International Labour Office by the Department of the Central Government or of the Municipality which compiles these data. In certain cases figures have been taken from official publications.

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[1] Cf. *International Labour Review*, Vol. XIV, No. 4, Oct. 1926, p. 585.

[2] *Idem*, Vol. XIV, No. 6, Dec. 1926, pp. 887-888.

Table I gives money wages, generally based on rates fixed by collective agreements, of typical categories of workers in the building, engineering, furniture-making, and printing and bookbinding industries. The figures are calculated on the basis of 48 hours' work, generally at ordinary time rates. So far as information is available, the amounts of cost-of-living bonuses and family allowances paid in certain cities are included. It should be pointed out that the data are not in all cases strictly comparable, as for some cities for which minimum rates are given the rates actually paid are somewhat higher. In the other cases the figures given are either the actual rates, or minimum rates which differ to a very small extent from the actual rates. The figures for Tallinn are based on average earnings.

Table II gives the average retail prices of various articles of food which are of importance in the consumption of wage earners and their families.

Table III, giving index numbers of comparative real wages in various cities at or about 1 October 1926, is in continuation of a corresponding table published in the *Review* for October[1] in which data were given for 1 July 1926. The index numbers are calculated from the figures of wages and prices given in tables I and II, by the method described in the *Review* for October 1924 and subsequent numbers, real wages in London at 1 October 1926 being taken as base (= 100).

If comparisons are made between the index numbers given in table III and corresponding numbers previously published, it should be noted that differences between the index numbers for any city at different dates may be due either to changes in the level of real wages in that city between those dates or to changes in the level of real wages in London. The index numbers thus show only proportionate changes in the levels of real wages in relation to those in London. In order to avoid the difficulty in comparison due to changes in the level of real wages in London, a fourth table is given showing index numbers of comparative real wages in various cities on the basis of real wages in London at 1 July 1924 (= 100).

Note on Comparisons in Tables III and IV

It should be emphasised that the comparative levels of real wages shown by the index numbers in table III are subject to the important reservations made in the *Review* for October 1924. As stated above or indicated in previous articles, the wage and price data for the different cities used as basis for the comparisons are not strictly comparable. Also, in the case of certain cities in Southern European countries, the relatively low index numbers of real wages may be accounted for in part by differences in the items of food consumption in such countries as compared with those ordinarily consumed in most of the other countries included in the table. The budgets used in the comparisons do not

[1] *Idem*, Vol. XIV, No. 4, Oct. 1926, p. 589.

TABLE I. MONEY WAGES CALCULATED ON THE BASIS OF 48 HOURS' WORK AT ORDINARY TIME RATES AT 1 OCTOBER 1926

Industry and occupation	Amsterdam	Berlin	Brussels	Copenhagen	Dublin	Lisbon	Lodz	London	Oslo	Ottawa	Philadelphia[2]	Prague	Riga	Rome	Stockholm[3]	Sydney[4]	Vienna	Warsaw
Building Industry:	Gulden	R Mks.	Francs	Kroner	s. d.	Escudos	Zloty	s. d.	Kroner	Dollars	Dollars	Koruny	Lats	Lire	Kronor	s. d.	Schillinge	Zloty
Bricklayers or masons	38.40	60.48	174.00	124.32	90 0	108.00	48.00	85 0	83.04	48.00	72.00	250.00	40.50	201.60	76.80	118 0	68.16	51.84
Carpenters	38.40	60.96	182.40	111.36	91 0	114.00	48.00	85 0	79.20	36.00	54.00	252.50	28.80	204.00	76.80	132 0	72.96	50.50
Joiners	38.40	—	189.60	91.68	91 0	114.00	—	85 0	79.20	36.00	54.00	—	32.46	187.20	76.80	—	54.24	—
Plumbers	38.40	64.80	165.80	98.40	89 0	108.00	—	85 0	67.20	40.80	55.20	—	32.70	175.20	66.24	122 0	55.10	—
Painters (general)	36.00	60.00	157.20	96.96	86 0	108.00	—	81 0	83.04	31.20	48.00	260.00	35.16	273.60	81.60	118 0	76.80	51.36
Labourers (general)	31.20	46.08	126.48	96.48	64 0	102.00	24.00	65 0	75.36	19.20	40.80	175.00	22.38	153.60	69.60	108 0	52.80	31 62
Engineering Trades:																		
Fitters	32.16	—	172.80	90.72	75 0	120.00	36.96	62 2	60.00	28.80	48.00	245.00	30.24	187.20	—	112 6	—	38.88
Ironmoulders (hand)	32.16	—	178.56	103.68	75 0	120.00	36.96	62 2	60.00	28.32	46.50	290.00	32.70	187.20	—	111 6	—	38.88
Patternmakers	32.16	—	234.24	99.36	77 0	120.00	36.96	66 10	60.00	33.60	48.00	317.50	31.20	—	—	121 6	—	38.88
Turners	32.16	—	183.36	—	75 0	120.00	36.96	62 2	60.00	28.80	38.40	245.00	26.88	177.60	—	112 6	53.30	38.88
Labourers	25.68	31.20	131.04	69.12	55 2	—	23.04	43 3	52.80	19.20	31.20	155.00	18.72	132.00	—	93 0	35.52	26.40
Furniture Trades:																		
Cabinet-makers	32.64	47.38	194.40	83.04	91 0	120.00	—	84 0	62.40	27.60	—	290.00	34.74	252.00	57.60	102 6	51.36	—
Labourers	—	39.56	—	—	60 0	—	—	—	—	16.30	—	150.00	20.88	136.80	—	—	34.08	—
Printing and Bookbinding Trades:																		
Hand compositors (book and job)	35.04	48.00	254.00	91.68	84 0	120.00	73.75	89 0	71.96	36.75	43.20	—	47 40	198.00	60.56	120 0	60.50	109.50
Machine " "	39.36	57.60	266.00	91.68	84 0	120.00	105.00	96 0	89.61	36.75	45.17	285.00	67.74	235.20	66.40	133 0[5]	72.60	153.30
Machine minders	35.04	48.00	254.00	86.40	84 0	120.00	72.50	89 0	74.95	36.75	42.00	—	55.44	198.00	60.55	120 0	60.50	109.50
Bookbinders	35.04	44.16	250.00	93.60	84 0	120.00	72.50	80 0	—	35.48	41.00	212.50	48.90	180.00	55.20	95 0	49.25	96.40
Labourers	28.08	42.00	—	70.08	55 6	—	25.00	71 0[1]	—	—	—	187.50	28.56	154.00	49.60	—	42.00	54.75

[1] Warehouse porters. [2] Figures for 1 October 1925. [3] For certain occupations the figures are minimum rates fixed by collective agreements and skilled workers are frequently paid at higher rates. [4] Figures for 31 December 1925. [5] Rates for linotype operators.

TABLE II. AVERAGE RETAIL PRICES[1] OF CERTAIN ARTICLES OF FOOD AT 1 OCTOBER 1926

Commodity	Amsterdam	Berlin	Brussels[2]	Copenhagen	Dublin	Lisbon	Lodz	London	Oslo	Ottawa	Philadelphia[4]	Prague	Riga	Rome	Stockholm	Sydney[5]	Tiflis	Vienna	Warsaw
	Gulden	R.Mks.	Francs	Kroner	Pence	Escudos	Zloty	Pence	Kroner	Cents	Cents	Koruny	Lats	Lire	Kronor	Pence	E.Mks.	Schillings	Zloty
Bread																			
White	0.24	0.70	2.60	0.83	6 1	2.60	0.59	5.2	0.88	16.5	20.7	3.00	0.73	2.90	0.78	6.5	48.8	1 65	0.61
Black or rye	0.18[2]	0.38	2.55	0.23	—	2.00	—	—	0.46	—	—	2.60	0.30	—	0.64	—	18.3	0.59	—
Flour (wheaten)	0.28	0.54	3.88	0.40	5.7	3.40	0.84	6.1	0.52	13.2	13.5	4.36	0.75	3.00	0.46	5.4	40.3	0.78	0.95
Butter																			
Fresh	2.28	3.90	25.50	—	41.9	24.00	5.91	48.1	4.43	87.1	119.5	25.58	3.82	23.00	—	52.2	268.6	6.40	6.30
Salt	—	—	23 50	3.71	—	23.00	—	49.2	—	—	—	—	3.43	11.00	3.40	—	232.0	—	—
Margarine	1.20	1.86	11.52	1.70	17.6	—	—	17.6	1.88	—	65.3	15.59	1.00	16.00	1.63	—	—	2.80	—
Beef (home produce)																			
Ribs	1.40	2.30	18.20	2.00	39.7	8.00	2.38	41.9	3.21	47.4	81.4	15.81	1.44	12.00	2.26	15.4	122.1	3.20	2.54
Thin flank	1.10		9.05	1.57	17.6			18.3	2.58	24.5	57.3	13.43	1.13	11.00	1.72	13.6	91.1		
Beef (chilled or frozen)																			
Ribs	1.10	1.40	14.00	—	—	—	—	24.3	—	—	—	—	—	11.00	—	—	—	2.60	—
Thin flank	0.80		6.50	—	—	—	—	11.0	—	—	—	—	—	4.00	—	—	—		—
Mutton (home produce)																			
Leg	2.20	2.70	15.00	—	39 7	7.00	2.22	41.2	2.35	65.3	92.6	12.32	1.46	—	2.38	17.1	109.9	3.60	2.46
Breast	1.20	2.30	7.80	—	26.5			19.4	2.11	—	—		1.01	—	—	13.6	97.7		
Mutton (frozen)																			
Leg	—	—	11.00	—	—	—	—	27.1	1.89	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Breast	—	—	3.75	—	—	—	—	11.2		—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Bacon	1.20	3.10	17.97	2.80	39.7	8.00	4.20	41.9	—	97.5	110.3	—	1.89	12.00	2.71	41.5	158.7	2.80	4.00
Potatoes	0.04	0.09	0.75	0.16	1 5	0.90	0.12	2.5	0.12	5.3	8.6	1.32	0.12	0.95	0.14	5.7	6.0	0.25	0.16
Sugar (white granulated)	0.49	0.66	3.79	0.59	7.3	3.00	1.32	7.5	0.83	16.3	14.6	5.75	0.64	7.30	0.60	10.2	42.7	0.98	1.40
Coffee	1.65	6.90	26.56	4.01	61 7	22.00	11.50	—	4.42	132.3	99.2	45.32	9.70	37.00	3.90	58.3	390.7	10.40	11.25
Coffee substitute	—	0.50	—	—	22.1	—	2.50	—	—	—	—	4.23	0.70	0.90	1.60	—	97.7	1 50	2.30
Tea	3.10	9.60	33.33	7.64	44.1	25.00	23.50	44.1	—	159.6	163.8	—	9.75	60.00	—	59.8	586.1	16 00	28.98
Cheese	1.20	1.50	—	1.75	35.3	20.00	1.42	27.6	0.84	72.1	86.7	6.33	1.25	18.00	1.70	36.6	195.4	5 40	1.88
Milk (unskimmed)	0.15	0.30	1.70	0.35	6.2	2.40	0.35	6.2	0.35	8.8	12.7	2.15	0.24	1.80	0.24	7.6	13.3	0.52	0.45
Eggs (not newlaid or preserved)	0.09	0.14	1.21	0.16	2.5	0.58	0.20	2.3	0.16	1.2	3.8	0.94	0.13	0.80	0.14	2.9	7.1	0.20	0.20
Rice	0.25	0.66	5.63	0.92	8.8	2.80	1.25	6.4	1.01	26.5	27.6	3.73	—	3.45	0.53	7.3	48.8	1.00	1.31

[1] Prices are per kilogramme, except for milk (per litre) and eggs (per unit).
[2] Bread made with unsifted wheaten flour.
[3] Figures for 15 October 1926.
[4] Figures for 15 August 1926.
[5] Figures for 15 June 1926.

TABLE III. INDEX NUMBERS OF COMPARATIVE REAL WAGES IN VARIOUS CITIES AT 1 OCTOBER 1926[1]

(Base: London, 1 October 1926 = 100)

City	Index numbers based on quantities of food consumption in :						General average index numbers based on food only	General average index numbers with allowance for rent
	Belgium and France	Central European countries	Great Britain	Southern European countries	Scandinavian countries	Oversea countries		
Amsterdam	95	105	84	92	106	94	96	96
Berlin	61	79	61	64	77	69	69	63
Brussels	44	44	42	43	48	45	44	47
Copenhagen	108	142	111	113	148	125	125	125
Dublin	98	103	100	96	104	100	100	109
Lisbon[2]	32	32	31	32	32	34	32	—
Lodz	47	54	41	49	53	47	49	54
London	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Oslo	72	88	72	74	95	80	80	82
Ottawa	151	154	155	153	174	168	159	157
Philadelphia	174	174	177	178	205	191	183	183
Prague	47	52	46	50	53	49	50	53
Riga	42	61	46	46	56	51	50	53
Rome[2]	43	45	43	46	49	48	46	48
Stockholm[3]	82	90	87	87	110	94	92	90
Sydney	125	119	137	138	164	138	137	137
Tallinn	36	50	37	39	51	43	43	44
Vienna	36	50	39	40	53	45	44	50
Warsaw[4]	56	61	45	56	59	53	55	56

[1] These index numbers are subject to the important reservations indicated in the note at the end of the article.

[2] The figures for Lisbon and Rome are relatively low. This may be accounted for in part by the differences in the items of food consumption in the Southern European countries from those ordinarily consumed in most of the other countries included in the table.

[3] The figures are based on wages in the building, furniture-making, and printing industries only. For other cities the metal industry is also included.

[4] Based on a weighted average wage. For other cities an unweighted average of the wages given in table I has been used.

make adequate allowance for the vegetable consumption in Southern European countries.

Further, the index numbers do not show differences in the general level of real wages, even in the cities included, being based on the wages of a few categories of workers in four industries only and on the prices of a limited number of articles of food. In the second series of general averages given in table III an allowance is made for rent, but no account is taken of expenditure on furniture, clothing, and other items of ordinary

TABLE IV. INDEX NUMBERS OF COMPARATIVE REAL WAGES IN VARIOUS CITIES BASED ON COST OF FOOD ONLY[1]

(Base : London, 1 July 1924 = 100)

City	1924		1925[2]				1926[2]			
	1 July	1 Oct.	1 Jan.	1 April	1 July	1 Oct.	1 Jan.	1 April	1 July	1 Oct.
Amsterdam	89	80	76	84	83	81	81	90	92	94
Berlin	55	59	57	63	63	65	69	71	70	67
Brussels	59	51	52	55	54	51	52	53	48	43
Copenhagen	—	—	79	92	93	109	116	—	114	121
Dublin	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	100	98
Lisbon	32	27	38	33	31	34	—	—	35	31
Lodz	—	—	48	50	54	54	45	54	44	47
London	100	94	92	98	99	94	95	103	102	98
Madrid	57	45	52	55	53	56	56	57	57	—
Milan	46	47	41	45	46	44	44	49	48	—
Oslo	72	76	74	81	79	89	94	100	—	78
Ottawa	172	153	154	161	162	158	140	146	152	155
Paris	73	67	66	65	—	—	—	61	—	—
Philadelphia	213	207	202	194	180	176	166	173	169	178
Prague	56	54	54	49	48	49	50	54	51	49
Riga	—	—	—	—	42	45	44	46	48	49
Rome	46	45	44	45	45	—	—	46	44	44
Stockholm[3]	85	79	78	76	78	82	82	89	89	89
Sydney	—	136	142	148	138	133	129	133	133	133
Tallinn	—	—	—	—	36	39	38	38	42	41
Vienna	47	44	44	41	42	43	43	45	44	43
Warsaw[4]	—	—	43	46	49	47	41	44	46	52

[1] These index numbers are subject to the important reservations indicated in the note at the end of the article.

[2] The figures for Prague, Stockholm, Vienna, and Lisbon from April 1925 onwards are nots trictly comparable with those for previous dates. In the case of Prague this is due in part to figures of the price of coffee as well as of coffee substitute being available, whereas in the previous calculations the price of coffee substitute only was used. Similarly in Stockholm, Vienna, and Lisbon in the calculations from April 1925 onwards the price of a superior as well as of an inferior quality of bread has been used in order to ensure a greater degree of comparability between the baskets of provisions for these cities and those used in other countries. The baskets of provisions used hitherto to measure wages in these four cities were inferior to those used in other countries, with the result that index numbers of real wages were relatively too high.

[3] The figures are based on wages in the building, furniture-making, and printing industries only. For other cities, the metal industry is also included.

[4] Based on a weighted average wage. For other cities an unweighted average of the wages given in table I has been used.

consumption. The index numbers, which are not representative of the relation between the general levels of real wages in the capital cities, are still less representative of differences in the levels of real wages in the respective countries. They may serve, however, as a rough indication of the relative levels of real wages of adult male workers in certain occupations and cities in different countries.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

Recent Labour Legislation

The list of laws and orders and international conventions given below continues the list published in previous numbers of the *Review*. The titles are, as a rule, given in the original language, with abbreviated translations of all those other than English, French, and German. A brief statement of the subject is added where the title itself does not indicate it. Abbreviated titles of sources have been used[1]. Those entries in the list marked with an asterisk (*) will be reproduced in full in English, French, and German in the *Legislative Series* of the International Labour Office.

LEGISLATION OF 1925

MANDATED TERRITORIES

New Guinea

Regulations under the Public Service Ordinance, 1922-1923. Dated 11 February 1925. (Commonwealth of Australia Gazette, 1925, No. 27, p. 403.)

Regulations under the Public Service Ordinance, 1922-1923. Dated 18 March 1925. (Commonwealth of Australia Gazette, 1925, No. 25, p. 370.)

Regulations under the Public Service Ordinance, 1922-1925. Dated 19 August 1925. (Commonwealth of Australia Gazette, 1925, No. 67, p. 1294.)

INTERNATIONAL

Austria-China

Handelsvertrag zwischen der Republik Oesterreich und der Republik China. Vom 19. Oktober 1925. (B. G. Bl., 1926, 37. Stück, No. 169, p. 673.)

Norway-Finland

Konvensjon mellem kongeriket Norge og republikken Finnland om flötning i Pasvik (Patsjoki). 14 febr. 1925.

Nojan Kuningaskunnan ja Suomen Tasavallan kesken tehty Sopimus puutavaran uittamisesta Pasvik'issa (Patsjoessa). 14 päivänä 1925.

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[1] *List of abbreviations :* A. N. = Amtliche Nachrichten des Oesterreichischen Bundesministeriums für soziale Verwaltung ; B. G. Bl. = Bundesgesetzblatt ; B. I. R. S. = Boletin del Instituto de Reformas Sociales ; B. M. T. = Bulletin du Ministère du Travail ; B. O. M. T. = Boletin Oficial del Ministerio de Trabajo, Comercio e Industria ; D. R. A. = Deutscher Reichsanzeiger ; Drj. Vest. = Drjaven Vestnik ; E. K. N. = Ergatiké kai Koinoniké Nomothesia (parartéma B') (published by the Ministry of National Economy) ; Eph. Kyb. = Ephémeris tès Kybernéséos (Touchos proton) ; G. U. = Gazzetta Ufficiale ; I. N. K. T. = Izvestia Narodnogo Komissariata Trooda ; J. O. = Journal Officiel ; Lik. = Likumu un Ministru Kabineta Noteikumu Krajums ; R. Arb. Bl. = Reichsarbeitsblatt ; R. d. T. = Revue du Travail ; R. G. Bl. = Reichsgesetzblatt ; S. R. & O. = Statutory Rules and Orders ; Sb. z. a n. = Sbirka zakonu a narizeni (Collection of Laws and Orders of the Czechoslovak Republic) ; L. S. = Legislative Series of the International Labour Office.

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(Overenskomster med fremmede stater, 1926, No. 6, pp. 218-219.)

AUSTRALIA

Commonwealth

Regulations under Navigation Act, 1912-1920 : Amendment of Regulations 9 and 13 of Navigation (Manning and Accommodation) Regulations. Dated 23 January 1925. (Statutory Rule, 1925, No. 14.) (Commonwealth of Australia Gazette, 1925, No. 6, p. 66.)

Proclamation under Navigation Act, 1912-1920 : Loadlines : Exemption of Danish ships. Dated 8 April 1925. (Commonwealth of Australia Gazette, 1925, No. 32, p. 547.)

Navigation (Life Saving and Fire Appliances) Regulations. After Regulations 97 and 103 are inserted respectively Regulations 97A, and 103A (Exemption of small ships in special cases). Dated 4 June 1925. (Statutory Rule, 1925, No. 86.) (Commonwealth of Australia Gazette, 1925, No. 46, p. 941.)

Navigation (Master and Seamen) Regulations under Navigation Act, 1912-1920: Amendment of Regulation 10 : Discharge books. Dated 4 June 1925. (Statutory Rule, 1925, No. 87.) (Commonwealth of Australia Gazette, 1925, No. 46, p. 941.)

Proclamation fixing 24 August 1925 as date of coming into operation of Navigation Act, 1925. Dated 19 August 1925. (Commonwealth of Australia Gazette, 1925, No. 65, p. 1281.)

Regulations to amend Immigration Regulations, 1913. Dated 26 August 1925. (Statutory Rules, 1925, No. 146.) (Commonwealth of Australia Gazette, 1925, No. 67, p. 1295.)

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Proclamation under Immigration Act, 1901-1925, to revoke prohibition of immigration into Commonwealth of any person of German, Austro-German, Bulgarian, and/or Hungarian parentage and nationality, or a Turk of Ottoman race. Dated 2 December 1925. (Commonwealth of Australia Gazette, 1925, No. 103, p. 2476.)

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Territory of the Seat of Government

An Ordinance to amend the Industrial Board Ordinances, 1922. No. 2 of 1925. Dated 4 June 1925. (Commonwealth of Australia Gazette, No. 47, dated 11 June 1925.)

Regulations under the Industrial Board Ordinance, 1922-1925. Dated 2 September 1925. (Commonwealth of Australia Gazette, 1925, No. 72, p. 1393.)

Northern Territory

An Ordinance to amend the Public Service Ordinance, 1913-1923, and for other purposes. No. 11 of 1925. Dated 13 May 1925. (Commonwealth of Australia Gazette, 1925, No. 39, p. 789.)

FEDERATED MALAY STATES

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Gazette Notification No. 2680, 1 May 1925, No. 9, Vol. XVII, under section 178 (i) of " The Labour Code, 1923 ", to amend Notification No. 304 published in the Gazette of 11 January 1924, by inserting the words " or of any dependent of a labourer " after the word " labourer " occurring in line 6 of the Notification. (Enactments, 1925, p. 290.)

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Gazette Notification No. 6013, 18 September 1925, No. 19, Vol. XVII: Rules made by the Chief Secretary to Government under section 39 of " The Police Force Enactment, 1923 ", on 29 January 1925, under the provisions of " The Police Force Enactment, 1923 ". (Enactments, 1925, p. 313.)

Gazette Notification No. 6960, 30 October 1925, No. 22, Vol. XVII, under section 141 (i) of " The Labour Code, 1923 ", to prescribe standard rates of wages as payable to all able-bodied Indian male and female labourers within the Klang, Kuala Selangor and Kuala Langat districts of the State of Selangor performing all or any of the kinds of labour specified in section 122 of " The Labour Code, 1923 ". (Enactments, 1925, p. 292.)

Gazette Notification No. 7092, 30 October 1925, No. 22, Vol. XVII, under section 39 of " The Police Force Enactment, 1923 ", to vary " The Police Force Pensions Rules " published as Notification No. 6013 in the Gazette of 18 September 1925. (Enactments, 1925, p. 316.)

HAITI (REPUBLIC OF)

Loi réglementant l'exercice du droit de réunion publique. Du 29 juin 1925. (Le Moniteur, 1925, No. 53, p. 361.)

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[Act respecting the Treaty of Commerce and Navigation between Latvia and the Belgo-Luxemburg Economic Union. Dated 20 May 1926.]

POLAND

Silesia

Ustawa z dnia 24. czerwca 1925 roku o Slaskiej Izbie Rolniczej. (Dziennik Ustaw Slaskich, 1925, No. 10, poz. 23, p. 49.)

[Act respecting the Silesian Chamber of Agriculture. Dated 24 June 1925.]

Ustawa z dnia 24. czerwca 1925 r. o przekazaniu Wojewodzkiemu Urzedowi Ubezpieczen w Katowicach czynnosci Wyzszego Sadu Rozjemczego w sprawach z ubiezpieczen funkcjonarjuszy prywatnych. (Dziennik Ustaw Slaskich, 1925, No. 10, poz. 24, p. 53.)

[Act to transfer to the provincial insurance office in Kattowitz the duties of the Supreme Arbitration Court with respect to matters relating to the insurance of private employees. Dated 24 June 1925.]

Ustawa z dnia 8. lipca 1925 roku o Zasilkach dla osob, ktorym niemieckie instytucje wstrzymaly renty a tytulu ubezpieczen spolecznych. (Dziennik Ustaw Slaskich, 1925, No. 11, poz. 29, p. 56.)

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LEGISLATION OF 1926

MANDATED TERRITORIES

New Guinea

An Ordinance to amend the Native Administration Ordinance, 1921-1922. No. 3 of 1926. Dated January 1926. (Commonwealth of Australia Gazette, 1926, No. 3, p. 42; Corrected Edition, No. 7. p. 85.)

An Ordinance to amend the Native Labour Ordinance, 1922-1925. No. 7 of 1926. Dated 3 March 1926. (Commonwealth of Australia Gazette, 1926, No. 31, p. 463.)

INTERNATIONAL

Denmark–Finland–Iceland–Norway–Sweden

Konvention angaaende Skibes Södygtighed og Udrustning. 28 Januar 1926.
Sopimus alusten merikelpoisuudesta ja varustuksesta. 28. p:nä 1926.
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AUSTRALIA

Commonwealth

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Queensland

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Western Australia

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AUSTRIA

* Landarbeiterverordnung für das Burgenland. Vom 14. Januar 1926. (A.N., 1926, No. 9-10, p. 215.)

BELGIUM

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CHILE

* Decreto número 217, que aprueba el reglamento adjunto, sobre higiene y seguridad industrial. 30 de abril de 1926. (Diario Oficial, 1926, No. 14462, p. 1094.)

[Decree No. 217 to approve the appended Industrial Health and Safety Regulations. Dated 30 April 1926.]

* Decreto número 269, que aprueba el Reglamento General que se inserta para la aplicación de las disposiciones de la Ley de Empleados Particulares. 22 de mayo de 1926. (Diario Oficial, 1926, No. 14483, p. 1295.)

[Decree No. 269 to approve the appended General Regulation for the administration of the provisions of the Act respecting private employees. Dated 22 May 1926.]

Decreto número 283, que crea un curso técnico del trabajo. 26 de mayo de 1926. (Diario Oficial, 1926. No. 14485, p. 1327.)

[Decree No. 283 to institute a course of technical labour instruction. Dated 26 May 1926.]

Decreto número 294, que aprueba el reglamento de policía minera que se inserta. 31 de mayo de 1926. (Diario Oficial, 1926, No. 14493, p. 1403.)

[Decree No. 294 to approve the appended Mines Regulations. Dated 31 May 1926.]

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[Decree No. 295 to put into operation for the purposes of Act No. 4053 (respecting contracts of employment) the provisions of the special Health and Safety Regulations approved by Decree No. 217 of 30 April 1926. Dated 4 June 1926.]

CZECHOSLOVAKIA

Laws.

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[Act respecting the income limit involving exclusion from the right to a war pension. Dated 4 May 1926.]

Zákon (Nr. 87) ze dne 4. kvetna 1926 o podomnim obchode. (Sb. z. a n., 1926, Částka 47, p. 399.)

[Act No. 87 respecting hawking and peddling. Dated 4 May 1926.]

Zákon ze dne 24. cervna 1926 o uprave platovych a nekterych sluzebnich pomeru statnich zamestnancu. (Platovy zakon.) (Sb. z. a n., 1926, Částka 51 No. 103, p. 433.)

[Act to regulate the salaries and certain conditions of service of state employees (Salaries Act). Dated 24 June 1926.]

Zákon ze dne 24. cervna 1926 o uprave platovych a sluzebnich pomeru ucitelstva obecnych a obcanskych skol. (Ucitelsky zákon.) (Sb. z. a n., 1926, Částka 52, No. 104, p. 479.)

[Act to regulate the conditions of service and remuneration of teachers in elementary and secondary schools (Teachers' Act). Dated 24 June 1926.]

Zákon ze dne 24. cervna 1926 o platovich pomerech statnich obecnich (mestskych) a obvodnich lékaru. (Sb. z. a n., 1926, Částka 52, No. 105, p. 490.)

[Act respecting the remuneration of communal (municipal) and district medical officers of health. Dated 24 June 1926.]

* Zákon ze dne 1. cervence 1926, jímz se zachovávají propensijni pojistence a pro cleny banskych bratrskych pokladen y platnosti nektera ustanoveni pravnich predpisu o nemocenskem pojisteni. (Sb. z. a n., 1926, Částka 56, No. 117, p. 556.)

[Act to maintain in operation for persons insured for a pension and for members of miners' benefit societies certain provisions respecting sickness insurance. Dated 1 July 1926.]

* Zákon ze dne 1. cervence 1926, jímz se meni §§ 275 a 276 zákona ze dne 9. rijna 1924, c. 221 Sb. z. a n., o pojisteni zamestnancu pro prípad nemoci, invalidity a stárí. (Sb. z. a n., 1926, Částka 56, No. 118, p. 556.)

[Act to amend sections 275 and 276 of the Act of 9 October 1924 (Sb. z. a n., No. 221) respecting the insurance of employees against sickness, invalidity, and old age. Dated 1 July 1926.]

Zákon ze dne 1. cervence 1926 o uprave pomeru druzstev Podkarpatské Rusi. (Sb. z. a n., 1926, Částka 60, No. 130, p. 581.)

[Act respecting the regulation of the position of co-operative societies in Subcarpathian Russia. Dated 1 July 1926.]

Zákon ze dne 1. cervence 1926 o poskytnuti zapujcky, po pripade zaruky pro úverni druzstva Podkarpatské Rusi. (Sb. z. a n., 1926, Částka 60, No. 131, p. 583.)

[Act respecting the grant of a loan, or a guarantee, to credit co-operative societies in Subcarpathian Russia. Dated 1 July 1926.]

Zákon ze dne 1. cervence 1926, jímz se pokuty, ukladané za prestupky zivnostenského radu, po prip. zivnostenského zákona pro uzemi Slovenska a Podkarpatské Rusi, prikazuji pro ucely zivnostenskych skol pokracovacich (skol ucnovskych.) (Sb. z. a n., 1926, Částka 64, No. 141, p. 598.)

[Act to allocate to the industrial continuation schools (apprenticeship schools) the proceeds of the fines imposed for contraventions of the Industrial Code or Industrial Act for the territory of Slovakia and Subcarpathian Russia. Dated 1 July 1926.]

Orders.

Vládni narízení (Nr. 90) ze dne 25. cervna 1926, jímz se castecne meni vládni narízení ze dne 9. rijna 1925, c. 200 Sb. z. a n., kterym se provádeji §§ 267, 274, 275 a 276 zákona ze dne 9. rijna 1924, c. 221 Sb. z. a n., o pojisteni zamestnancu pro prípad nemoci, invalidity a stárí (Sb. z. a n., 1926, Částka 48, p. 416.)

[Government Order No. 90 to amend in certain respects the Government Order of 9 October 1925 (Sb. z. a n., No. 200) for the administration of sections 267, 274, 275, and 276 of the Act of 9 October 1924 (Sb. z. a n., No. 221) respecting the insurance of workers against sickness, invalidity, and old age. Dated 25 June 1926.]

Vládné nariadenie (Nr 94) zo dna 25. júna 1926, ktorym sa meni vladné nariadenie zo dna 26. mája 1925, c. 125 Sb. z. a n., obsahujúce zvlastné predpisy na ochranu zivota a zdravia robotnikov v zivnostenskych závodoch, v ktorych sa konajú knihtlaciarske a kamenotlaciarske, ake aj pismoliatecké práce. (Sb. z. a n., 1926, Částka 49, p. 420.)

[Government Order No. 94 to amend the Government Order of 26 May 1925 (Sb. z. a n., No. 125) issuing special provisions for the protection of the life and health of workers in industrial undertakings in which printing, lithography, and typefounding work are carried on (Slovakia and Subcarpathian Russia). Dated 25 June 1926.]

Vladni narízení ze dne 7. cervence 1926 o úprave sluzebnich a platovych pomeru statnich zamestnancu v pomocné kancelarské sluzbe. (Sb. z. a n., 1926, Cástka 55, No. 113, p. 515.)

[Government Order to regulate the salary and service conditions of state employees in the auxiliary clerical services. Dated 7 July 1926.]

Vladni narízení ze dne 7. cervence 1926 o úprave sluzebnich a platovych pomeru pomocnych zrizencu. (Sb. z. a n., 1926, Cástka 55, No. 114, p. 537.)

[Government Order to regulate the conditions of service and salaries of auxiliary employees. Dated 7 July 1926.]

Vyhlaska ministra vnitra ze dne 15. cervence 1926, jiz se opravuje chyba ve vladnim narízení ze dne 7. cervence 1926, c. 113 Sb. z. a n., o uprave sluzebnich a platovych pomeru statnich zamestnancu v pomocné kancelarské slusbe. (Sb. z. a n., 1926, Cástka 60, No. 132, p. 583.)

[Notification of the Minister of the Interior to rectify an erratum in the Government Order of 7 July 1926 (Sb. z. a n., No. 113) respecting the regulation of conditions of service and salary of state employees. Dated 15 July 1926.]

Vladni narízení ze dne 16. cervence 1926 o nemocenském pojisteni duchovnich cirkvi a nabozenskych spolecnosti statem uznanych (recipovanych), jakoz i ucitelu verejnych skol obecnych a obcanskych, na nez se vztahuje ustanoveni § 1, odst. 2., ucitelskeho zákona. (Sb. z. a n., 1926, Cástka 65, No. 144, p. 601.)

[Government Order respecting the sickness insurance of ministers of churches and religious bodies recognised by the state and of teachers in public elementary and secondary schools covered by section 1, subsection 2, of the Teachers' Act. Dated 16 July 1926.]

Vladni narizeni ze dne 16. cervence 1926, kterym se vydava volebni rad do organu Lécebného fondu verejnych zamestnancu a di rozhodcich soudu. (Sb. z. a n., 1926, Cástka 66, No. 146, p. 605.)

[Government Order to issue election rules for the executive bodies of the public employees' sick fund and for the arbitration boards. Dated 16 July 1926.]

DANZIG (FREE CITY OF)

Gesetz (Nr. 42) betr. Aenderung des Gesetzes über Erwerbslosenfürsorge vom 28. März 1922 (Gesetzbl. S. 91). Vom 7. Mai 1926. (Gesetzblatt, 1926, No. 20, p. 131.)

Gesetz (Nr. 51) betr. Abänderung des Erwerbslosenfürsorgegesetzes vom 28. März 1922 (Gesetzbl. S. 91) in der Fassung der Verordnung vom 25. Oktober 1923 (Gesetzbl. S. 1117), des Gesetzes vom 19. Dezember 1924 (Gesetzbl. S. 543), der Verordnung vom 13. März 1925 (Gesetzbl. S. 76). Vom 23. Juni 1926. (Gesetzblatt, 1926, No. 21, p. 197.)

Luftverkehrsgesetz (Nr. 48). Vom 9. Juni 1926. (Gesetzblatt, 1926, No. 20, p. 191.)

DUTCH COLONIES

Dutch East Indies

* Besluit van den Gouverneur-Generaal van 11 Augustus 1926 : [Bekendmaking van] koninklijk besluit van 12 Juni 1926 No. 33, strekkende tot regeling van het arbeidscontract voor Nederlandsch-Indië. (Staatsblad van Nederlandsch-Indië, 1926, No. 335.)

[Decree of the Governor-General : (Notification of) Royal Decree of 12 June 1926, No. 33, respecting the regulation of contracts of employment in the Dutch East Indies. Dated 11 August 1926.]

ESTHONIA

* Wahetpidamata kestwa walmistusega tööstusettewotetes pühapäewadel ja pühadel lubatud tööde nimekiri. 19 augustil 1926 a. (Riigi Teataja, 1926 a, No. 67, p. 852.)

[Schedule of work which is permitted on Sundays and holidays in industrial establishments with continuous processes. Dated 19 August 1926.]

* Seltskondlikkudes huwides elanikkude igapäewaste tarwiduste rahuldamiseks pühapäewadel ja pühadel lubatud tööde nimekiri. 19 augustil 1926 a. (Riigi Teataja, 1926 a, No. 67, p. 852.)

[Schedule of work which is permitted on Sundays and holidays to meet the daily requirements of the population. Dated 19 August. 1926.]

Töö-hoolekandeministeeriumi täiendaw määrus sojainwaliidide järelrawitsuse korrakohta. 29. juunil 1926 a. (Riigi Teataja, 1926 a, No. 58, p. 729.)

[Supplementary Order respecting the procedure in case of a resumption of treatment of disabled ex-service men. Dated 29 June 1926.]

Wabariigi Walitsuse poolt 1. septembril 1926 a. wastu wõetud Maaseaduse täiendamise ja muutmise seaduse elluwiimise määruse täiendamise määrus. (Riigi Teataja, 1926 a, No. 67, p. 849.)

[Order to supplement the Administrative Order under the Act to supplement and amend the Agrarian Act. Dated 1 September 1926.]

* Määrus 13. septembrist 1926 a. tööstusettewõtetes töötawate naiste öötöö keelu elluwiimiseks. (Riigi Teataja, 1926, No. 71, p. 873.)

[Order respecting the carrying out of the prohibition of night work of women employed in industrial establishments. Dated 13 September 1926.]

Maareformi teostamise määruste §§ 2-6, 8-14, 51-64, 85-87, ja 89-91 muutmise ja täiendamise määrus. 24. septembril 1926. (Riigi Teataja, 1926, No. 73, p. 881.)

[Order to amend and supplement sections 2-6, 8-14, 51-64, 85-87, and 89-91 of the Orders for the administration of the agrarian reform. Dated 24 September 1926.]

FEDERATED MALAY STATES

An Enactment to establish a Provident Fund for the benefit of employees engaged in the business of growing and producing tropical agricultural products in Malaya. No. 25 of 1925. Dated 20 January 1926. (Enactments, 1925, p. 155.)

An Enactment to amend the Women's and Girls' Protection Enactment, 1914. No. 21 of 1925. Dated 3 February 1926. (Enactments, 1925, p. 143.)

* An Enactment to regulate and control the employment of female domestic servants. No. 22 of 1925. Dated 3 February 1926. (Enactments, 1925, p. 147.)

FINLAND

Laki asunto-osakeyhtiöistä. 5 päivänä helmikuuta 1926. (Sosialinen Aikakauskirja, 1926, No. 3, p. 241.)

Lag om bostadsaktiebolag. Den 5 februari 1926. (Social Tidskrift, 1926, No. 3, p. 241.)

[Act respecting Joint-Stock Housing Companies. Dated 5 February 1926.]

Asetus maahöyrykattiloista. 17 päivänä syyskuuta 1926. (Suomen Asetuskokoelma, 1926, No. 240, p. 603.)

Förordning angaende landangpannor. Den 17 september 1926. (Finlands Författningssamling, 1926, No. 240, p. 603.)

[Order respecting steam boilers on land. Dated 17 September 1926.]

Asetus höyryastioista. 17 päivänä syyskuuta 1926. (Suomen Asetuskokoelma, 1926, No. 241, p. 614.)

Förordning angaende angkäri. Den 17 september 1926. (Finlands Författningssamling 1926, No. 241, p. 614.)

[Order respecting steam containers. Dated 17 September 1926.]

Asetus maakonemestareista, koneenhoitajista ja veturinkuljettajista. 17 päivänä syyskuuta 1926. (Suomen asetuskokoelma, 1926, No. 242, p. 624.)

Förordning angaende landmaskinmästare maskinskötare och lokomotivförare. Den 17. september 1926. (Finlands Författningssamling, 1926, No. 242, p. 623.)

[Order respecting foremen engineers on land, engine attendants, and engine drivers. Dated 17 September 1926.]

FRANCE

Arrêté et circulaire concernant l'organisation de l'apprentissage en agriculture. Du 12 août 1926. (J. O., 1926, No. 245, p. 11438.)

Décret fixant la nomenclature des médicaments, objets de pansement, appareils et ustensiles à embarquer sur les navires de commerce et de pêche. Du 30 septembre 1926. (J. O., 1926, No. 245, p. 11429.)

Décret portant organisation du service sanitaire maritime. Du 15 octobre 1926. (J. O., 1926, No. 245, p. 11442.)

Décret fixant le montant de la prime pour les contrats nouveaux passés avec la Caisse nationale d'assurance en cas d'accidents. Du 17 octobre 1926. (J. O., 1926, No. 245, p. 11442.)

Décret portant réglementation des établissements dangereux, insalubres ou incommodes en Afrique occidentale française. Du 20 octobre 1926. (J. O., 1926, No. 254, p. 11739.)

Arrêté créant une commission mixte consultative du travail et une sous-commission permanente. Du 28 octobre 1926. (J. O., 1926, No. 255, p. 11776.)

Décret fixant les conditions d'admission au Togo et au Cameroun placés sous mandat de la France des nationaux français ou étrangers. Du 30 octobre 1926. (J. O., 1926, No. 257, p. 11826.)

* Décret étendant aux glaceries et aux verreries automatiques le décret du 19 février 1925 portant règlement d'administration publique pour l'application de la loi du 23 avril 1919 sur la journée de huit heures dans les verreries. Du 4 novembre 1926. (J. O., 1926, No. 260, p. 11905.)

FRENCH COLONIES

French West Africa

* Arrêté promulguant en Afrique occidentale française le décret du 22 octobre 1925, réglementant le travail indigène en Afrique occidentale française. Du 29 mars 1926. (J. O., de l'A. O. F., 1926, No. 1124, p. 301.)

Arrêté du 29 mars 1926 fixant les conditions d'exécution du décret du 22 octobre 1925 portant réglementation en matière de travail indigène en A. O. F. (J. O. de l'A. O. F., 1926, No. 1124, p. 304.)

Morocco

* Dahir du 13 juillet 1926 (2 moharrem 1345) portant règlementation du travail dans les établissements industriels et commerciaux. (Bulletin officiel du Protectorat du Maroc, 1926, No. 724, p. 1689.)

* Dahir du 13 juillet 1926 (2 moharrem 1345) relatif au paiement des salaires des ouvriers et employés. (Bulletin officiel du Protectorat du Maroc, 1926, No. 724, p. 1694.)

GERMANY

Bekanntmachung über Reichsbeihilfen für saarländische Versicherte ausserhalb des Saargebietes. Vom 28. September 1926. (R. Arb. Bl., 1926, No. 38, p. 330.)

Thuringen

Zweite Abänderung der Ausführungsanweisung zur Reichsverordnung über Erwerbslosenfürsorge. Vom 1. August 1926. (R. Arb. Bl., 1926, No. 38, p. 328.)

GREAT BRITAIN

* An Act to make provision for facilitating the working of minerals and the better organisation of the coal mining industry, and with respect to the welfare of persons employed therein, and for other purposes connected with that industry. Dated 4 August 1926. (16 & 17 Geo. V, ch. 28.)

The Contributory Pensions (Approved Societies' Returns) Regulations, 1926, dated 18 May 1926, made by the National Health Insurance Joint Committee with the consent of the Treasury under section 38 (8) of the Widows', Orphans' and Old-Age Contributory Pensions Act, 1925 (15 & 16 Geo. V, ch. 70). (S. R. & O., 1926, No. 740.)

The Contributory Pensions (Appropriation in Aid) Regulations, 1926, dated 19 June 1926, made by the Treasury under section 12 of the Widows', Orphans' and Old-Age Contributory Pensions Act (15 & 16 Geo. V, ch. 70). (S. R. & O., 1926, No. 744.)

Proclamation, dated 26 July 1926, under the Emergency Powers Act, 1920 (10 & 11 Geo. V. ch. 55), declaring a State of Emergency. (S. R. & O., 1926, No. 912.)

Provisional Regulations, dated 26 July 1926, made by the National Health Insurance Joint Committee, the Minister of Health, and the Scottish Board of Health, acting jointly, under the National Health Insurance Acts, 1924 and 1926. Deposit Contributors Amendment Regulations (No. 2), 1926. (Provisional Rules and Orders, 1926.)

The National Health Insurance (Insurance Committees) Amendment Regulations (No. 2), 1926, dated 15 September 1926, made by the Minister of Health under section 48 (5) of the National Health Insurance Act, 1924 (14 & 15 Geo. V, ch. 38), further amending the National Health Insurance (Insurance Committees) Regulations, 1924. (S. R. & O., 1926, No. 1128.)

Scheme, dated 11 October 1926, made by the Board of Education, with the consent of the Treasury, under section 21 (1) (*a*) of the Teachers (Superannuation) Act, 1925 (15 & 16 Geo. V, ch. 59) relating to Schools which are not Grant-Aided Schools. (S. R. & O., 1926, No. 1314.)

Scotland

The Notification of Deaths (Persons over 70) Regulations (Scotland), 1926, dated 10 June 1926, made under section 6 of the Registration of Births, Deaths and Marriages (Scotland) Act, 1854 (17 & 18 Vict., ch. 80) as applied by section 45 (4) (*b*) of the Widows', Orphans and Old-Age Contributory Pensions Act, 1925 (15 & 16 Geo. V, ch. 70). (S. R. & O., 1926, No. $\frac{730}{8.28}$.)

GREECE

Legislative Decree respecting the grant of an allowance to boatmen. Dated 5 July 1926. (Eph. Kyb., 1926, No. 267, p. 2037.)

Legislative Decree to substitute a new text for section 18 of the Legislative Decree of 9 September 1925 respecting the composition of the pilot corps. Dated 9 July 1926. (Eph. Kyb., 1926, No. 258, p. 1970.)

* Legislative Decree respecting tips. Dated 15 July 1926. (Eph. Kyb., 1926, No. 251, p. 1926.)

Legislative Decree respecting the ratification of the Treaty of Commerce and Navigation concluded between Greece and Great Britain. Dated 23 July 1926. (Eph. Kyb., 1926, No. 278, p. 2093.)

Legislative Decree to amend the Legislative Decree of 10 December 1923 respecting certificates of competency for seamen. Dated 31 July 1926. (Eph. Kyb., 1926, No. 272, p. 2057.)

Legislative Decree to amend paragraph 3 of section 4 of the Legislative Decree of 10 December 1923 respecting certificates of competency for seamen. Dated 31 July 1926. (Eph. Kyb., 1926, No. 267, p. 2037.)

Legislative Decree to supplement the provisions respecting the moratorium. Dated 8 August 1926. (Eph. Kyb., 1926, No. 273, p. 2063.)

Legislative Decree to institute a mutual benefit fund for the assistant staff of the Postal, Telegraph, and Telephone Department. Dated 12 August 1926. (Eph. Kyb., 1926, No. 280, p. 2117.)

Decree to approve the establishment of vocational evening classes for female salaried employees. Dated 7 July 1926. (Eph. Kyb., 1926, No. 244, p. 1892.)

GUATEMALA

Decreto núm. 1420 [los maestros de enseñanza primaria de los establecimientos públicos, que enfermaren durante el ejercicio de su ministerio, tienen derecho a ser asistidos por cuenta del Estado.] 30 de marzo de 1926. (Diario Oficial de la República de Guatemala, 1926, No. 85, p. 345.)

[Decree No. 1420 (to provide that teachers in public elementary schools shall be entitled in case of illness during their service to relief from public funds). Dated 30 March 1926.]

Reglamento del Secretaria de Fomento relacionado con el Decreto legislativo número 1367 [de 27 de abril de 1925, que obliga a toda persona o compañia de

formar su cuerpo de empleados con un 75% de guatemaltecos cuando menos]. 9 de abril de 1926. (Diario Oficial de la República de Guatemala, 1926, No. 92, p. 389.)

[Regulations of the Department for Development under Legislative Decree No. 1367 (of 27 April 1925, providing that not less than 75 per cent. of the employees of any individual employer or company shall be Guatemalans). Dated 9 April 1926.]

HUNGARY

* A m. kir. belügyminiszter, 1926. évi 156.045 számu körrendelete a cukraszüzletek zärorajanak megallapitasa ügyében. 1926. évi julius hó 20-an. (Budapesti Közlöny, 1926, 178. szám, 3. lap.)

[Circular No. 156045/1926 of the Minister of the Interior respecting the fixing of the closing hour for confectioners' establishments. Dated 20 July 1926.]

A m. kir. földmivelésügyi miniszter 74302/1926. VI-1. számu, az Országos Gazdasagi Munkaspénztarhoz intézett rendelete a biztositottak foglalkozasabol eredö (különleges) betegségének az üzemi balesettel azonos elbiralasa tárgyában. 1926. évi augustus hó 19-én. (Budapesti Közlöny, 1926, 197. szám, 2. lap.)

[Order No. 74302/1926 VI-1 of the Minister of Agriculture addressed to the National Fund of Agricultural Workers respecting the assimilation of (special) occupational diseases of insured persons to industrial accidents. Dated 19 August 1926.]

A m. kir. kereskedelemügyi miniszternek 52045/1926 számu rendelete a munkaügyi birosaghoz ülnokök kijelolésére jogositott egyesületek es testületek jegyzékének helyesbitése tárgyában. 1926. évi szeptember hó 23-an. (Budapesti Közlöny, 1926, 223. szám.)

[Order No. 52045/1926 of the Minister of Commerce to rectify the list of associations and bodies entitled to appoint assessors to the labour courts. Dated 23 September 1926.]

INDIA

The Public Service Commission (Functions) Rules, 1926. Dated 22 September 1926. (S. R. & O., 1926, No. 1202.)

IRISH FREE STATE

* Acht chun socru do dheanamh d'fonn freastal lenbhai i mbunscoileanna do chur in airithe. 27adh Bealtaine, 1926. (Uimh. 17 de 1926.)

An Act to make provision for ensuring the attendance of children at elementary schools. Dated 27 May 1926. (Number 17 of 1926.)

Acht chun Acht na dTithe, 1925, do leasu agus do leathnu. Uimhir 31 de 1926. 16adh Iúl, 1926.

An Act to amend and extend the Housing Act, 1925. No. 31 of 1926. Dated 16 July 1926.

Acht chun tuille socruithe do dheanamh chun go ndunfar go luath siopai, i gcontae-bhuirg Bhaile Atha Cliath agus sna bailecheanntair mor-thimpeal, ina mbionn na gnothai seo no aon cheann acu ar siul, eadhon, gno eadathara, tailliura, gleasadora, haiteara, goiseara, lamhainneora, brogadora, no troscanadora agus greasdora throscain. Uimhir 36 de 1926. 28 adh Iúl, 1926.

An Act to make further provision for the early closing of shops in the county borough of Dublin and surrounding urban districts in which the trade of draper, tailor, outfitter, hatter, hosier, glover, boot and shoe dealer or house-furnisher and upholsterer or any of them, is carried on. Number 36 of 1926 Dated 28 July 1926.

Acht chun coimisiun do bhunu ar a mbeidh se de churam na daoine do thogha amach a bheidh le ceapa chun bearta i bhfostaiocht udarasanna aitiula, agus chun foralacha eile do dheanamh chun a chur in airithe gur daoine oiriunacha a ceapfar chun bearta den tsort san agus fos chun socru nios fearr do dheanamh chun daoine a bheidh i seilbh na mbeart san do chur ar fionnrai. Uimhir 39 de 1926. 28adh Iúl, 1926.

An Act to establish a commission charged with the duty of selecting the persons to be appointed to situations in the employment of local authorities, and to make

other provisions for ensuring the appointment of suitable persons to such situations, and also to make better provision for the suspension of persons holding such situations. No. 39 of 1926. Dated 28 July 1926.

The Prevention of Accidents Rules, 1911, Amendment Rules, 1926, dated 3 May 1926, made by the Minister for Industry and Commerce pursuant to section 1 (1) of the Railway Employment (Prevention of Accidents) Act, 1900. (S. R. & O., 1926, No. 30.)

Regulations, dated 1 June 1926, made by the Irish Insurance Commissioners with the concurrence of the Minister for Local Government and Public Health, under the National Health Insurance Acts, 1911 to 1925. (S. R. & O., 1926, No. 31.)

ITALY

Laws.

Legge 31 gennaio 1926, n. 1152 : Conversione in legge del R. decreto 30 dicembre 1924, n. 2176, che da esecuzione al Trattato di commercio e di navigazione fra il Regno d'Italia e la Repubblica di Finlandia, firmato a Roma il 22 ottobre 1924. (Numero di pubblicazione : 1516.) (G. U., 1926, No. 165, p. 3222.)

[Act No. 1152 to convert into an Act Royal Decree No. 2176 of 30 December 1924 to put into operation the Treaty of Commerce and Navigation between the Kingdom of Italy and the Republic of Finland, signed at Rome on 22 October 1924. Dated 31 January 1926.]

Legge 15 luglio 1926, n. 1586 : Conversione in legge del R. decreto-legge 15 novembre 1925, n. 2003, che dà esecuzione alla Convenzione provvisoria di commercio fra l'Italia e l'Ungheria e al relativo protocollo finale, firmati entrambi in Roma il 20 luglio 1925, nonchè alle due note diplomatiche scambiate in relazione a tale Convenzione. (Numero di pubblicazione : 1937.) (G. U., 1926, No. 225, p. 4273.)

[Act No. 1586 to convert into an Act Royal Decree No. 2003 of 15 November 1925 respecting the administration of the Provisional Commercial Treaty between Italy and Hungary and the relevant final protocol, both signed at Rome on 20 July 1925, and also of the two diplomatic notes exchanged in connection with the said Convention. Dated 15 July 1926.]

Regio Decreto-Legge 1° luglio 1926, n. 1308 : Modificazioni al R. decreto-legge 29 novembre 1925, n. 2146, concernente la estensione alle nuove Provincie delle leggi di assicurazione sociale. (Numero de pubblicazione : 1614.) (G. U., 1926, No. 179, p. 3476.)

[Legislative Decree No. 1308 to amend Royal Decree No. 2146 of 29 November 1925 respecting the extension of the social insurance laws to the new provinces. Dated 1 July 1926.]

Regio Decreto-Legge 1° luglio 1926, n. 1309 : Modificazioni alle norme istitutive dell' Associazione nazionale per la prevenzione degli infortuni sul lavoro. (Numero di pubblicazione : 1615.) (G. U., 1926, No. 179, p. 3477.)

[Legislative Decree No. 1309 to amend the rules of the National Association for the Prevention of Industrial Accidents. Dated 1 July 1926.]

Regio Decreto-Legge 9 luglio 1926, n. 1353 : Norme per la stipulazione di contratti da parte degli Enti costruttori di case popolari. (Numero de pubblicazione : 1655.) (G. U., 1926, No. 186, p. 3570.)

[Legislative Decree No. 1353 : rules respecting the conclusion of contracts by societies for the construction of cheap houses. Dated 9 July 1926.]

Regio Decreto-legge 29 luglio 1926, n. 1644 : Disposizioni per l'Istituto nazionale per le case degli impiegati dello Stato. (Numero di pubblicazione : 1953.) (G. U., 1926, No. 228, p. 4329.)

[Legislative Decree No. 1644 respecting the National Institute for the housing of state employees. Dated 29 July 1926.]

Regio Decreto-legge 13 agosto 1926, n. 1497 : Finanziamenti a favore dell' Istituto nazionale per le case degli impiegati statali. (Numero di pubblicazione : 1818.) (G. U., 1926, No. 211, p. 4042.)

[Legislative Decree No. 1497 : subsidies to the National Institute for the housing of state employees. Dated 13 August 1926.]

Regio Decreto-legge 13 agosto 1926, n. 1500. Provvedimenti per il trattamento di quiescenza degli insegnanti elementari. (Numero di pubblicazione : 1816.) (G. U., 1926, No. 211, p. 4034.)

[Legislative Decree No. 1500 respecting the retirement allowances of elementary school teachers. Dated 13 August 1926.]

Regio Decreto-legge 13 agosto 1926, n. 1554 : Norme relative alla liquidazione dei consorzi e delle associazioni di cooperative erette in ente morale. (Numero di pubblicazione : 1840.) (G. U., 1926, No. 215, p. 4106.)

[Legislative Decree No. 1554 : rules for the winding up of consortiums and co-operative societies which are bodies corporate. Dated 13 August 1926.]

Regio Decreto-legge 13 agosto 1926, n. 1564 : Coordinamento delle disposizioni per l'assicurazione contro le malattie nelle nuove Provincie con quelle per l'equo trattamento del personale dei pubblici servizi di trasporto in concessione. (Numero di pubblicazione : 1851.) (G. U., 1926, No. 216, p. 4120.)

[Legislative Decree No. 1564 to co-ordinate the provisions concerning sickness insurance in the new provinces with the provisions concerning the equitable treatment of the staff of public transport services worked under a concession. Dated 13 August 1926.]

Regio Decreto-legge 16 agosto 1926, n. 1577 : Sospensione delle modificazioni alle piante organiche degli impiegati degli enti locali. (Numero di pubblicazione : 1878.) (G. U., 1926, No. 218, p. 4134.)

[Legislative Decree No. 1577 to suspend the changes in the staff classification of the employees of local authorities. Dated 16 August 1926.]

Regio Decreto-legge 20 agosto 1926, n. 1494 : Modificazioni all' art. 15 del R. decreto-legge 7 aprile 1925, n. 405, e all' annessovi regolamento del personale ferroviario. (Numero di pubblicazione : 1833.) (G. U., 1926, No. 214, p. 4082.)

[Legislative Decree No. 1494 : amendment of section 15 of Legislative Decree No. 405 of 7 April 1925 and the regulations for railway employees appended thereto. Dated 20 August 1926.]

Orders.

Regio Decreto 9 maggio 1926, n. 1277 : Norme per il trattamento di quiescenza del personale delle Regie scuole professionali, industriali e commerciali e artistiche. (Numero di pubblicazione : 1598.) (G. U., 1926, No. 177, p. 3451.)

[Royal Decree No. 1277 : rules for the pensions of the staff of the royal vocational, industrial and commercial, and art schools. Dated 9 May 1926.]

Regio Decreto 26 maggio 1926, n. 1395 : Norme per l'attuazione dell' art. 21 del R. decreto-legge 15 novembre 1925, n. 2046, recante provvedimenti per il Commissariato generale dell' emigrazione. (Numero di pubblicazione : 1706.) (G. U., 1926, No. 196, p. 3690.)

[Royal Decree No. 1395 : rules for the administration of section 21 of Legislative Decree No. 2046 of 15 November 1925 issuing provisions respecting the General Emigration Department. Dated 26 May 1926.]

Regio Decreto 1° luglio 1926, n. 1447 : Aggiunta di una nuova voce alla tabella II annessa al regolamento 8 agosto 1908, n. 599, per l'esecuzione della legge sul riposo settimanale e festivo nelle aziende industriali. (Numero di pubblicazione : 1713.) (G.U., 1926, No. 200, p. 3831.)

[Royal Decree No. 1447 to add a new category to Schedule II of Regulations No. 599 of 8 August 1908 for the administration of the Act respecting weekly rest and holidays in industrial undertakings. Dated 1 July 1926.]

Decreto ministeriale 12 agosto 1926 : Istituzione dell' Ufficio del lavoro nel porto di Napoli. (G. U., 1926, No. 197, p. 3711.)

[Ministerial Decree : Institution of a labour office in the port of Naples. Dated 12 August 1926.]

Regio Decreto 13 agosto 1926, n. 1503 : Modificazioni al R. decreto 23 marzo 1922, n. 387, concernente la istituzione del casellario centrale infortuni. (Numero di pubblicazione : 1819.) (G. U., 1926, No. 211, p. 4043.)

[Royal Decree No. 1503 to amend Royal Decree No. 387 of 23 March 1922 respecting the institution of a Central Accidents Register. Dated 13 August 1926.]

Regio Decreto 13 agosto 1926, n. 1678: Approvazione dello statuto della Cassa nazionale di assicurazione per gli infortuni sul lavoro. (Numero di pubblicazione: 1984.) (G. U., 1926, No. 235, p. 4489.)

[Royal Decree No. 1678 to approve the rules of the National Industrial Accident Insurance Institution. Dated 13 August 1926.]

Regio Decreto 20 agosto 1926, n. 1620: Modificazioni ed aggiunte ai Regi decreti 14 giugno 1925, n. 884, e 3 gennaio 1926, n. 88, relativi al personale telefonico. (Numero di pubblicazione: 1929.) (G. U., 1926, No. 223, p. 4248.)

[Royal Decree No. 1620 to amend and supplement Royal Decrees No. 884 of 14 June 1925 and No. 88 of 3 January 1926 respecting the staff of the Telephone Department. Dated 20 August 1926.]

Decreto ministeriale 10 settembre 1926: Norme per il funzionamento dell' Ufficio del lavoro portuale di Fiume. (G. U., 1926, No. 228, p. 4331.)

[Ministerial Decree respecting the carrying on of the Port Labour Office in Fiume. Dated 10 September 1926.]

LATVIA

Noteikumi par kugniecibas nelaimes gadijumu izmeklesanu. 1926. g. 19. augusta. (Valdibas Vestnesis, 1926, g. 25. augusta, p. 1.)

[Order respecting enquiries in case of maritime accidents. Dated 19 August 1926.]

Noteikumi par lauksaimniecibas macibas iestadem. 1926. g. 19. augusta. (Valdibas Vestnesis, 1926, No. 191, p. 1.)

[Order respecting establishments for agricultural education. Dated 19 August 1926.]

Pargrozijumi un papildinajumi likuma par biedribam savienibam un politiskam organizacijam. 1926. g. 9. septembri. (Lik., 1926, 16. burtnica, No. 124, p. 385.)

[Amendments of and additions to the Act respecting associations and political organisations. Dated 9 September 1926. (Superseded by Act of 30 September 1926).]

Noteikumi par tirdzniecibas kugu personalu. 1926. g. 20. septembri. (Valdibas Vestnesis, 1926, No. 211, p. 3.)

[Order respecting persons employed on merchant vessels. Dated 20 September 1926.]

Pargrozijums agraras reformas likuma. 1926. g. 8. oktobri. (Valdibas Vestnesis, 1926, No. 228, p. 1.)

[Amendment of the Agrarian Reform Act. Dated 8 October 1926.]

LIECHTENSTEIN

* Zivilgesetzbuch. Dritter Teil. Das Personen- und Gesellschaftsrecht. Vom 20. Januar 1926. (Liechtensteinisches Landesgesetzblatt, 1926, No. 4.)

LITHUANIA

* Ligoniu kasu istatymo pakeitimas. (V. Z. Nr. 227, eil. 1476.) 1926 m. rugsėjo mėn. 28 d. (Vyriausybes Zinios, 1926, No. 237, p. 1.)

[Amendment of the Sick Funds Act. Dated 28 September 1926.]

Uzsienio pasams duoti taisyklės. (Vyriausybes Zinios, 1926. No. 234, p. 2.)

[Instructions respecting the issue of passports. (Dated 18 August 1926).]

LUXEMBURG

Arrêté grand-ducal du 21 août 1926 portant modification de l'article 4 de l'arrêté grand-ducal du 21 août 1923 concernant l'embauchage d'ouvriers de nationalité étrangère.

Grossh. Beschluss vom 21. August 1926, wodurch Artikel 4 des Grossh. Beschlusses vom 21. August 1923 über die Einstellung von Arbeitern ausländischer Nationalität abgeändert wird.

(Mémorial, 1926, No. 34, p. 617.)

Arrêté grand-ducal du 21 août 1926, concernant la majoration des traitements et salaires du personnel des chemins de fer luxembourgeois.
(Mémorial, 1926, No. 35, p. 633.)

Arrêté grand-ducal du 25 août 1926, portant fixation du maximum du salaire normal en matière d'assurance-maladie.
Grossh. Beschluss vom 25. August 1926, betreffend Festsetzung des Höchstgrundlohnes in Sachen der Krankenversicherung.
(Mémorial, 1926, No. 38, p. 717.)

Arrêté grand-ducal du 6 octobre 1926, portant modification du statut du personnel des chemins de fer luxembourgeois. (Mémorial, 1926, No. 46, p. p. 799.)

Arrêté grand-ducal du 16 octobre 1926 concernant la constitution d'Unions de Caisses, en exécution de l'article 39 de la loi du 17 décembre 1925.
Grossh. Beschluss vom 16. Oktober 1926 betreffend den Zusammenschluss der Krankenkassen zu Verbänden in Ausführung des Artikels 39 des Gesetzes vom 17. Dezember 1925.
(Mémorial, 1926, No. 50, p. 819.)

NETHERLANDS

Laws.

Wet van den 10den Juni 1926, houdende voorbehoud der bevoegdheid tot toetreding tot het ontwerp-verdrag van Genève betreffende de toepassing van den wekelijkschen rustdag in de industrie. (Staatsblad, 1926, No. 184.)
[Act to reserve the right to ratify the Geneva Draft Convention concerning the application of the weekly rest in industrial establishments. Dated 10 June 1926.]

Wet van den 10den Juni 1926, houdende goedkeuring van het ontwerp-verdrag van Genève betreffende het verplicht geneeskundig onderzoek van kinderen en jeugdige personen, werkzaam aan boord van schepen. (Staatsblad, 1926, No. 186.)
[Act to ratify the Geneva Draft Convention concerning the compulsory medical examination of children and young persons employed at sea. Dated 10 June 1926.]

Wet van den 10den Juni 1926, betreffende voorbehoud der bevoegdheid tot toetreding tot het ontwerp-verdrag van Genève betreffende het gebruik van loodwit in verstoffen. (Staatsblad, 1926, No. 187.)
[Act to reserve the right to ratify the Geneva Draft Convention concerning the use of white lead in painting. Dated 10 June 1926.]

Wet van den 10den Juni 1926, houdende goedkeuring van het ontwerp-verdrag van Genève betreffende de schadeloosstelling voor ongevallen in den landbouw. (Staatsblad, 1926, No. 188.)
[Act to ratify the Geneva Draft Convention respecting compensation for accidents in agriculture. Dated 10 June 1926.]

Wet van den 10den Juni 1926, houdende goedkeuring van het ontwerp-verdrag van Genève betreffende het recht van vereeniging en vergadering van landarbeiders. (Staatsblad, 1926, No. 189.)
[Act to ratify the Geneva Draft Convention concerning the rights of association and combination of agricultural workers. Dated 10 June 1926.]

Wet van den 30sten Juli 1926, tot wijziging van artikel 20 der Invaliditeitswet. (Staatsblad, 1926, No. 246.)
[Act to amend section 20 of the Invalidity Act. Dated 30 July 1926.]

Wet van den 30sten Juli 1926, tot uitvoering van artikel 4, eerste lid, der Ouderdomswet 1919 en nadere vaststelling van de middelen voor de dekking van de uit te keeren renten, bedoeld bij de artikelem 28 en 37 der Ouderdomswet 1919. (Staatsblad, 1926, No. 247.)
[Act in pursuance of section 4, subsection (1) of the Old-Age Act, 1919, fixing the resources necessary to cover the pensions payable under sections 28 and 37 of the Old-Age Act, 1919. Dated 30 July 1926.]

Orders.

Besluit, No. 327, van den 7den September 1926, bepalende de bekendmaking in het Staatsblad van de ontwerp-verdragen betreffende : 1° de schadeloosstelling voor ongevallen in den landbouw ; en 2° het recht van vereeniging en vergadering van landarbeiders, aangenommen in de in 1921 te Genève gehouden derde zitting

der Algemeene Conferentie van de vertegenwoordigers der Leden van de Internationale Organisatie van den Arbeid van den Volkenbond (Staatsblad, 1926, Nos. 188 en 189). (Staatsblad, 1926, No. 327.)

[Decree No. 327 to promulgate in the Staatsblad the Draft Conventions concerning: (1) workmen's compensation in agriculture, (2) right of association and combination of agricultural workers, adopted at the Third Session of the General Conference of the International Labour Organisation of the League of Nations, held in Geneva in 1921. Dated 7 September 1926.]

* Besluit van den 18den September 1926, tot nadere wijziging van het Werktijdenbesluit voor fabrieken of werkplaatsen 1923 (Staatsblad, 1923, No. 442), laatstelijk gewijzigd bij het Koninklijk besluit van 4 Maart 1926 (Staatsblad, No. 38). (Staatsblad, 1926, No. 337.)

[Decree to further amend the Hours of Work for Factories and Workplaces Decree, 1923 (Staatsblad, 1923, No. 442), as last amended by Royal Decree of 1 March 1926 (Staatsblad, No. 38). Dated 18 September 1926.]

* Besluit van den 16den October 1926 houdende bekendmaking van den tekst van het Werktijdenbesluit voor fabrieken of werkplaatsen 1923, zooals dit sedert is gewijzigd. (Staatsblad, 1926, No. 359.)

[Decree to promulgate the text of the Hours of Work Decree for Factories and Workplaces, 1923, as subsequently amended. Dated 16 October 1926.]

NORWAY

Lov Nr. 2 um motorvogner. Den 20 februar 1926. (Norsk Lovtidende, 1926, No. 7, p. 62.)

[Act No. 2 respecting motor vehicles. Dated 20 February 1926.]

* Lov om forandring i lov om lukningstid for utsalgssteder av 25 juli 1913 nr. 5. 1 juli 1926, Nr. 7. (Norsk Lovtidende, 1926, No. 27, p. 356.)

[Act No. 7 to amend Act No. 5 of 25 July 1913 respecting shop closing hours. Dated 1 July 1926.]

* Lov om forandringer i lov om sykeforsikring av 6 august 1915 med tilleggslover. 1 juli [1926], Nr. 8. (Norsk Lovtidende, 1926, No. 27, p. 357.)

[Act No. 8 to amend the Sickness Insurance Act of 6 August 1915 together with the supplementary Acts. Dated 1 July 1926.]

Kongelig resolusjon, 17 september 1926, hvorved bestemmes, at lov om arbeidstvister av 6 august 1915 i sin helhet skal gjelde for Svalbard. (Norsk Lovtidende, 1926, No. 38, p. 481.)

[Royal Resolution providing that the Act of 6 August 1915 respecting labour disputes shall apply in its entirety to Svalbard (Spitzbergen). Dated 17 September 1926.]

POLAND

Laws.

Ustawa z dnia 1 lipca 1926 r. o stosunkach służbowych nauczycieli. (Dziennik Ustaw, 1926, No. 92, poz. 530, p. 1011.)

[Act respecting the contract of employment of teachers. Dated 1 July 1926.]

Ustawa z dnia 23 lipca 1926 r. o zasiłkach dla osób, którym niemieckie instytucje wstrzymały renty z tytułu ubezpieczeń społecznych. (Dziennik Ustaw, 1926, No. 83, poz. 464, p. 916.)

[Act respecting allowances to persons to whom German institutions have suspended the payment of social insurance pensions. Dated 23 July 1926.]

* Ustawa z dnia 5 sierpnia 1926 r. zmieniająca art. 1 ustawy z dnia 30 lipca 1925 r. (Dz. U.R.P. No. 86 poz. 591) o zmianie pierwszego ustępu art. 22 ustawy z dnia 2 lipca 1924 r. w przedmiocie pracy młodocianych i kobiet (Dz. U.R.P. No. 65 poz. 636). (Dziennik Ustaw, 1926, No. 93, poz. 538, p. 1036.)

[Act to amend section 1 of the Act of 30 July 1925 to amend the first paragraph of section 22 of the Act of 2 July 1924 respecting the employment of women and young persons. Dated 5 August 1926.]

Orders.

* Rozporządzenie Ministra Pracy i Opieki Społecznej z dnia 5 lutego 1926 r. w porozumieniu z Ministrem Skarbu, Ministrem Przemysłu i Handlu, Ministrem

Spraw Wojskowych, Ministrem Kolei i Ministrem Robot Publicznych o postepowaniu zakladow pracy przy sciaganiu wkladek na rzecz funduszu bezrobocia. (Dziennik Ustaw, 1926, No. 18, poz. 113, p. 210.)

[Order of the Minister of Labour and Social Welfare, in agreement with the Ministers of Finance, Industry and Commerce, War, Communications, and Public Works, respecting the procedure of establishments in connection with the collection of contributions for the unemployment fund. Dated 5 February 1926.]

Rozporzadzenie Ministra Pracy i Opieki Spolecznej w porozumieniu z Ministrem Sprawiedliwosci, Ministrem Spraw Wewnetrznych i Ministrem Skarbu z dnia 12 czerwca 1926 r. o rozciagnieciu na obszar Spisza i Orawy, nalezacy do Rzeczypospolitej Polskiej, mocy obowiazujacej rozporzadzen w sprawie zalatwiania zatargow zbiorowych pomiedzy pracodawcami a pracownikami rolnymi. (Dziennik Ustaw, 1926, No. 66, poz. 393, p. 769.)

[Order of the Minister of Labour and Social Welfare, in agreement with the Ministers of Justice, the Interior, and Finance, to extend to the parts of the territory of Spisza and Orawa which belong to Poland the operation of the Orders respecting the settlement of collective disputes between employers and agricultural workers. Dated 12 June 1926.]

Oswiadczenie rzadowe z dnia 25 czerwca 1926 roku w sprawie wymiany dokumentow ratyfikacyjnych Konwencji miedzy Rzeczapospolita Polska a Rzesza Niemiecka o ulatwieniach w malym ruchu granicznym, podpisanej w Gdansku dnia 30 grudnia 1924 roku. (Ustawa ratyfikacyjna zostala opublikowana w Nrze 78 Dziennika Ustaw Rzeczypospolitej Polskiej z 1925 roku, poz. 544.) (Dziennik Ustaw, 1926, No. 65, poz. 384, p. 754.)

[Declaration of the Government respecting the exchange of instruments of ratification of the Convention between Poland and Germany respecting facilities for local frontier communications, signed at Danzig on 30 December 1924. Dated 25 June 1926.]

Rozporzadzenie Ministrow Spraw Wojskowych, Skarbu oraz Pracy i Opieki Spolecznej z dnia 5 lipca 1926 r. zmieniajace niektore postanowienia rozporzadzenia wykonaczego Ministra Spraw Wojskowych, Ministra Skarbu i Ministra Pracy i Opieki Spolecznej z dnia 10 stycznia 1923 r. do ustawy z dnia 18 marca 1921 r. o zaopatrzeniu inwalidow wojennych i ich rodzin, oraz o zaopatrzeniu rodzin po poleglych i zmarlych, ktorych smierc znajduje sie w zwiazku przyczynowym ze sluzba wojskowa, tudziez do ustawy z dnia 4 sierpnia 1922 r., zmieniajacej niektore postanowienia ustawy z dnia 18 marca 1921 r. o zaopatrzeniu inwalidow wojennych i ich rodzin, oraz o zaopatrzeniu rodzin po poleglych i zmarlych, ktorych smierc znajduje sie w zwiazku przyczynowym ze sluzba wojskowa (Dz. U.R.P. z. roku 1923 No. 20, poz. 132). (Dziennik Ustaw, 1926, No. 68, poz. 403, p. 788.)

[Order of the Ministers of War, Finance, and Labour and Social Welfare to amend in certain respects the Order of the Ministers of War, Finance, and Labour and Social Welfare of 10 January 1923, issued under the Act of 18 March 1921, respecting the relief of disabled ex-service men and their families and of the families of soldiers killed or deceased where death is due to reasons connected with military service, and under the Act of 4 August 1922 to amend certain provisions of the Act of 18 March 1921 respecting the relief of disabled ex-service men and their families and of the families of soldiers killed or deceased where death is due to reasons connected with military service. Dated 5 July 1926.]

Rozporzadzenie Ministra Pracy i Opieki Spolecznej z dnia 5 lipca 1926 r. wydane w porozumieniu z Ministrem Przemyslu i Handlu oraz Ministrem Rolnictwa i Dobr Panstwowych o zmianie rozporzadzen, dotyczacych podzialu na okregi i obwody inspekcji pracy. (Dziennik Ustaw, 1926, No. 82, poz. 454, p. 910.)

[Order of the Minister of Labour and Social Welfare, issued in agreement with the Minister of Commerce and Industry and the Minister of Agriculture and State Lands, to amend the Orders respecting the division of the labour inspection service into regions and districts. Dated 5 July 1926.]

Obwieszczenie Ministra Pracy i Opieki Spolecznej z dnia 11 sierpnia 1926 r. o sprostowaniu bledu w rozporzadzeniu Ministra Pracy i Opieki Spolecznej z dnia 24 marca 1926 r. w sprawie przepisow wyborczych dla kas chorych. (Dziennik Ustaw, 1926, No. 89, poz. 515, p. 1002.)

[Notification of the Minister of Labour and Social Welfare to correct an erratum in the Order of the Minister of Labour and Social Welfare of 24 March 1926 respecting rules for electoral procedure for sick funds. Dated 11 August 1926.]

Rozporzadzenie Prezydenta Rzeczpospolitej z dnia 13 sierpnia 1926 r. o cudzoziemcach. (Dziennik Ustaw, 1926, No. 83, poz. 465, p. 918.)

[Order of the President of the Republic respecting aliens. Dated 13 August 1926.]

Silesia

Rozporzadzenie Ministra Pracy i Opieki Spolecznej z dnia 1. marca 1926 r. w sprawie nadania mocy obowiazujacej orzeczeniu Komisji Pojednawczo-Rozjemczej w Katowicach z dnia 29. stycznia 1926 r. (Dziennik Ustaw Slaskich, 1926, No. 6, poz. 9, p. 21.)

[Order of the Minister of Labour and Social Welfare to declare generally binding the decision of 29 January 1926 of the Conciliation and Arbitration Commission in Kattowitz (concerning the increase of the remuneration of non-manual workers in the mining and metal industries). Dated 1 March 1926.]

PORTUGAL

Diploma legislativo colonial No. 108 (decreto) : Aprova o modus vivendi sobre mão de obra celebrado entre os governos das provincias de Angola e de São Tomé e Principe, e assinado em Loanda em 28 de Abril de 1926. (Diário do Govêrno, 1926, I. Série, No. 137, p. 626.)

[Colonial Decree No. 108 to approve the arrangement between the Governors of the provinces of Angola and Sao Tomé and Principe, signed at Loanda on 28 April 1926, respecting the supply of labourers.]

Decreto No. 12249 : Altera a redacção dos artigos 58°, 59°, 60° e 61° do Código Penal e Disciplinar da Marinha Mercante, de 4 de Julho de 1864. 2 de Setembro de 1926. (Diário do Govêrno, 1926, I. Série, No. 194, p. 1200.)

[Decree No. 12249 to amend the text of sections 58, 59, 60, and 61 of the Penal and Disciplinary Code for the Mercantile Marine of 4 July 1864. Dated 2 September 1926.]

Decreto No. 12383, estabelece as condições de segurança da navegação. 27 de Setembro de 1926. (Diário do Govêrno, 1926, No. 215, p. 1419.)

[Decree No. 12383 to prescribe safety conditions for navigation. Dated 27 September 1926.]

Decreto No. 12412 : Introduz uma rubrica sobre lagares de azeite na tabela I do regulamento das industrias insalubres, incomodas, perigosas ou toxicas, aprovado pelo decreto No. 8364. 28 de Setembro de 1926. (Diário do Govêrno, 1926, No. 219, p. 1446.)

[Decree No. 12412 : addition of a heading respecting oil presses in Schedule I of the Regulations for dangerous, unhealthy, or noxious industries approved by Decree No. 8364 (of 25 August 1922). Dated 28 September 1926.]

ROUMANIA

Decizie No. 13520, Ministrului Muncii, Cooperatici si Asigurarilor Sociale, din 19. Maiu 1926, privitoare la repaosul duminical acordat salariatilor din cofetarii. (Buletinul Muncii, 1926, No. 4-5-6, p. 331.)

[Decision No. 13520 of the Minister of Labour, Co-operation, and Social Insurance respecting the Sunday rest of employees in confectioners' establishments. Dated 19 May 1926.]

Regulamentul institutiilor hidro-minerale si climatice. 31. August 1926. (Monitorul Oficial, 1916, No. 205, p. 14019.)

[Regulations for health resorts (mineral springs and climatic centres). Dated 31 August 1926.]

SALVADOR

Ley de Protección a los Empleados de Comercio. 10 de junio de 1926. (Diario del Salvador, 15 de junio de 1926.)

[Act for the protection of commercial employees. Dated 10 June 1926.]

Decreto : Apruébase el Decreto por el cual se establece el registro de ciudadanos chinos. 13 de abril de 1926. (Diario Oficial, 1926, No. 81, p. 641.)

[Decree to approve the Decree (of 28 November 1925) providing for the establishment of a register of Chinese citizens. Dated 13 April 1926.]

Decreto : Es obligatorio que en las empresas y compañías nacionales o extranjeras agrícolas, industriales y comerciales, establecidas en el pais, el personal de empleados debe estar formado por el 80 % de salvadoreños. 24 de mayo de 1926. (Diario Oficial, 1926, No. 120, p. 949.)

[Decree to provide that not less than 80 per cent. of the staff employed by agricultural, industrial and commercial undertakings or companies established in the country shall be nationals of Salvador. Dated 24 May 1926.]

Decreto : En toda propiedad rural donde vivan veinte o mas colonos analfabetos, se establecerá una escuela elemental rudimentaria. 26 de mayo de 1926. (Diario Oficial, 1926, No. 119, p. 941.)

[Decree to provide for the establishment of an elementary school on every rural property on which twenty or more illiterate persons (over 18 years of age) are living. Dated 26 May 1926.]

Decreto : Ley para la Construcción y Alquiler de Casas Baratas. 11 de junio de 1926. (Diario Oficial, 1926, No. 130, p. 1029.)

[Decree : Act respecting construction and rents of cheap houses. Dated 11 June 1926.]

SERB-CROAT-SLOVENE KINGDOM

Act to amend section 234 of the Act of 31 July 1923 respecting civil servants and other state employees. Dated 25 July 1926. (Sluzbene Novine, 1926, No. 172-XLVIII.)

Regulations for intermediate agricultural schools. Dated 13 April 1926. (Sluzbene Novine, 1926, No. 126-XXXIII.)

Regulations respecting procedure in case of accidents in the air service and the insurance of employees making service flights. Dated 10 June 1926. (Sluzbene Novine, 1926, No. 159-XLIII.)

Regulations respecting post-office motor traffic in the Kingdom of the Serbs, Croats, and Slovenes. Dated 12 June 1926. (Sluzbene Novine, 1926, No. 167-XLVI.)

Amendment of the regulations [of 23 June 1925] for the administration of the Housing Act. Dated 8 July 1926. (Sluzbene Novine 1926, No. 157-XLII.)

Amendments of and supplements to the order [of 16 March 1926] respecting the distribution of the Kingdom of the Serbs, Croats, and Slovenes into ten labour inspection districts, eight steam boiler inspection districts, and two navigation inspection districts. Dated 13 July 1926. (Sluzbene Novine, 1926, No. 163-XLIV.)

Resolution No. 26156 of the Minister for Agrarian Reform respecting the transport free of charge of agricultural settlers and their effects. Dated 24 July 1926. (Sluzbene Novine, 1926, No. 196-LIII.)

Regulations for the administration of Resolution No. 26156, dated 24 July 1926, of the Minister for Agrarian Reform, respecting the transport free of charge of agricultural settlers and their effects and respecting the method of payment of their transport on the state railways and vessels belonging to the state or on railways or vessels belonging to private persons. Dated 25 August 1926. (Sluzbene Novine, 1926, No. 196-LIII.)

* Order with force of law to regulate the relations between journalists and newspaper proprietors. Dated 25 September 1926. (Sluzbene Novine, 1926, No. 219-LVII.)

SPAIN

* Real decreto-ley relativa al trabajo a domicilio. 26 de julio de 1926. (Gaceta de Madrid, 1926, No. 212, p. 731.)

[Legislative Decree respecting home work. Dated 26 July 1926.]

* Real decreto-ley aprobando el Código de Trabajo. 23 de agosto de 1926. (Gaceta de Madrid, 1926, No. 244, p. 1298 ; No. 245, p. 1322 ; No. 246, pp. 1359-1370.)

[Legislative Decree to approve the Labour Code. Dated 23 August 1926.

Real decreto aprobando el Reglamento provisional para la aplicación del Estatuto de Enseñanza Industrial de 31 de octubre de 1924, a las escuelas provinciales, municipales y privadas. 18 de junio de 1926. (Gaceta de Madrid, 1926, No. 175, p. 1756.)

[Royal Decree to approve the provisional regulations for the application to provincial, municipal, and private schools of the Regulations of 31 October 1924 concerning industrial education. Dated 18 June 1926.]

Real orden disponiendo que por una Comisión especial constituida en la forma que se indica se proceda a la redacción de un texto en que se refundan las disposiciones legales relativas a la Reglamentación del trabajo y a la Organización administrativa para la aplicación de tales reglamentos. 27 de septiembre de 1926. (Gaceta de Madrid, 1926, No. 275, p. 57.)

[Royal Order to set up a special commission, instituted as provided in the Order, to draw up a text consolidating the statutory measures respecting the regulation of labour and administration of the said measures. Dated 27 September 1926.]

Real decreto modificando en la forma que se indica la regla primera del artículo 9º del Reglamento elelectoral, de Vocales del Consejo del Trabajo, aprobado por Real decreto de 5 de marzo de 1926. 11 de octubre de 1926. (Gaceta de Madrid, 1926, No. 285, p. 210.)

[Royal Decree to amend as indicated provision 1 of section 9 of the Election Regulations for members of the Labour Council, approved by Royal Decree of 5 March 1926. Dated 11 October 1926.]

Real decreto aprobando el Reglamento por que se ha de regir la tercera Sección de Pensiones y Jubilaciones de la " Real Institución Cooperativa para Funcionarios del Estado ". 11 de octubre de 1926. (Gaceta de Madrid, 1926, No. 288, p. 253.)

[Royal Decree to approve the regulations for the third section (Pensions and Superannuation Allowances) of the Royal Co-operative Institution for Civil Servants. Dated 11 October 1926.]

SWEDEN

Kungl. socialstyrelsens kungörelse angaende formulär för anmälan om blyförgiftning inom maleriyrjet. Den 30 juni 1926. (Svensk Författningssamling, 1926, No. 387, p. 765.)

[Notification of the Board of Social Affairs respecting the forms for the declaration of cases of lead poisoning in the painting industry. Dated 30 June 1926.]

[a] Kungl. Maj:ts förordning med närmare föreskrifter rörande tillämpningen av lagen om arbetstiden a svenska fartyg (sjörarbetstidslagen). Den 13 juli 1926. (Svensk Författningssamling, 1926, No. 399, p. 817.)

[Royal Order issuing further provisions respecting the application of the Hours of Work Act on Swedish vessels (Maritime Hours of Work Act). Dated 13 July 1926.]

Kungl. Maj:ts Kungörelse om övervakande av utlänningar i riket (Nr 411). Den 4 september 1926. (Svensk Författningssamling, 1926, No. 411, p. 897.)

[Royal Notification No. 411 respecting the supervision of aliens in the Kingdom. Dated 4 September 1926.]

SWITZERLAND

Arrêté fédéral sur les prestations de la Confédération en cas d'invalidité, de vieillesse ou de mort des professeurs de l'École polytechnique fédérale. Du 1er octobre 1926. (Feuille fédérale, 1926, No. 40, p. 553.)

Bundesbeschluss über die Leistungen des Bundes bei Invalidität, Alter und Tod der Professoren der Eidgenössischen Hochschule. Vom 1. Oktober 1926 (Bundesblatt, 1926, No. 40, p. 525.)

Basle

[a] Gesetz betreffend Versicherung gegen die Folgen der Arbeitslosigkeit. Vom 11. Februar 1926.

Gesetz betreffend die Ausrichtung von Beiträgen an die Wohnungsauslagen kinderreicher Familien. Vom 4. November 1926. (Kantons-Blatt, 1926, No. 37, p. 207.)

Vollziehungsverordnung zum Gesetz betreffend Versicherung gegen die Folgen der Arbeitslosigkeit. Vom 2. November 1926. (Kantons-Blatt, 1926, No. 37, p. 209.)

Grossratsbeschluss betreffend Ausrichtung einer einmaligen Winterunterstützung an arbeitslose Kantonseinwohner. Vom 1. November 1926. (Kantons-Blatt, 1926, No. 37, p. 207.)

Berne

Gesetz betreffend die Beitragsleistung an die Arbeitslosenkassen. Vom 3. Februar 1926.

Loi sur l'allocation de subventions aux caisses d'assurance-chomage. Du 3 février 1926.

Gesetz über den Warenhandel, das Wandergewerbe und den Marktverkehr. Vom 17. März 1926.

Loi sur le commerce des marchandises, les industries ambulantes ainsi que les foires et marchés. Du 17 mars 1926.

Soleure

Gesetz betreffend die Arbeitslosenversicherung. Vom 27. Mai 1926. In der Volksabstimmung angenommen am 31. Oktober 1926.

TANGANYIKA TERRITORY

An Ordinance to make further provision for the regulation of the relations between employers and native servants. No. 11. Dated 25 June 1926. (Supplement No. 1 to the Tanganyika Territory Gazette, Vol. VII, No. 27, dated 25 June 1926.)

UNION OF SOUTH AFRICA

Government Notice No. 1445 issued by the Department of the Interior: Amendments in Public Service Regulations [under the Public Service and Pensions Act, 1923]. Dated 16 August 1926. (Union of South Africa Government Gazette, 1926, Vol. LXV, No. 1574, p. 353.)

Government Notice No. 1602: Regulations under the Miners' Phthisis Acts Consolidation Act, 1925. Dated 10 September 1926. (Union of South Africa Government Gazette, 1926, Vol. LXV, No. 1578, p. 511.)

Orange Free State

Ordinance to further amend the Teachers' Pensions Ordinance No. 8 of 1920. No. 10 of 1926. Assented to 30 July 1926. Took effect 6 August 1926.

Ordonnansie tot verdere wysiging van die Onderwysers Pensioen Ordonnansie, No. 8 van 1920. No. 10 van 1926. Goedgekeur 30 Julie, 1926. In werking getree 6 August, 1926.

(Ordonances, 1926, No. 10, pp. 48-49.)

URUGUAY

Ley: Se determina el personal con derecho a acogerse a los beneficios que originaron la creación de la Caja de Jubilaciones y Pensiones de Empleados y Obreros de los Servicios Públicos y se fija plazo para iniciar gestiones. 30 de agosto de 1926. (Diario Oficial, 1926, No. 6099, p. 579.)

[Act specifying the employees entitled to benefits from the superannuation and pensions fund for wage-earning and salaried employees in the public services and fixing a time limit within which the persons concerned must establish their claim. Dated 30 August 1926.]

VENEZUELA

Ley sobre Pesca de Perlas. 29 de mayo de 1926. (Gaceta Oficial, 1926, No. 15947, p. 65925.)

[Act respecting pearl fishing. Dated 29 May 1926.]

Código penal. 6 de julio de 1926. (Gaceta Oficial, 17 de agosto de 1926.)

[Penal Code. Promulgated 6 July 1926.]

Book Notes

INTERNATIONAL PUBLICATIONS

International Labour Office. *International Labour Directory 1925.* Part VII. Miscellaneous International Organisations. Geneva, 1926. 8 pp. 6d.; 15 cents.

League of Nations. Economic and Financial Section. *Memorandum on Production and Trade.* Submitted to the Preparatory Committee for the International Economic Conference. Publications of the League of Nations: II. Economic and Financial 1926. II. 52. Geneva, 1926. 47 pp. 1s. 6d., $0.40.

Bureau international de la Paix. *Le XXIVe Congrès universel de la Paix, Paris, Palais de la Sorbonne, 1-6 septembre 1925. Documents officiels.* Paris, Délégation permanente des sociétés françaises de la Paix; Geneva, Bureau international de la Paix, 1926. 288 pp.

Proceedings of the twenty-fourth World Peace Congress held in Paris, 1-6 September 1925.

International Painters' Secretariat. *Fifteenth International Report of the National Societies of Painters and Similar Trades for the Year 1925.* Hamburg, 1926. 31 pp.

OFFICIAL PUBLICATIONS

ARGENTINA

Senado de la Nacion. Comision de legislacion. *Asociaciones gremiales de Trabajadores. Informe de la Comision de Legislacion en el proyecto de ley sobre la materia.* Por el Senador Mario Bravo. Buenos Aires, 1926. 57 pp.

Report of the Legislative Committee of the Senate on the Bill relating to the recognition of workers' organisations, submitted by Mr. Mario Bravo, and based on Part XIII of the Treaty of Versailles.

AUSTRALIA

Commonwealth Bureau of Census and Statistics. *Census of the Commonwealth of Australia taken for the night between 3 and 4 April 1921.* Part XXIX. *Intercensal Demography.* Melbourne, 1926. Pp. 2015-2174. 2s. 6d.

—— *Labour Report, 1925.* No. 16. Melbourne, 1926. 167 pp.

Royal Commission on National Insurance. *Second Progress Report: Unemployment.* Melbourne, Government Printer, 1926. 43 pp. 1s. 6d.

The Commission draws attention to the absence of any complete and detailed statistics of unemployment in Australia, but concludes that the evidence available is sufficient to indicate recurrent unemployment in some industries at certain periods of the year. It enumerates briefly the various causes of unemployment and describes the various forms of relief at present available for the unemployed, including the unemployment insurance scheme in the State of Queensland. As a means of preventing unemployment it advocates a national co-ordinated system of employment exchanges, the collection of detailed statistics on the volume and incidence of unemployment, the organisation of the State public works programmes

to provide for expansion in periods of unemployment, and the development of an extensive system of technical training. For this purpose it recommends the constitution of an Unemployment Council comprising representatives of the Government, employers' organisations, and the trade unions. With regard to unemployment insurance, the Commission simply recommends that "a system of insurance against unemployment be instituted to meet those risks which are found to be unavoidable and where assistance to necessitous cases is warranted". A conspectus of Acts in various countries relating to unemployment insurance and employment exchanges is appended to the report.

Superannuation Fund Management Board. *Fourth Report for the year ended 30 June 1926.* Melbourne, 1926. 19 pp. 9d.

NEW SOUTH WALES

Department of Agriculture. *What the Department is doing for Farmers.* Sydney, Govt. Printer, 1925. 47 pp.

A complete account of the experimental, propaganda, and educational work controlled by the New South Wales Department of Agriculture, which was founded in 1890. Of interest is the statement as to the growth of the Agricultural Bureau, an organisation with local branches spreading throughout the greater part of the State; it is designed to bring the farming community into direct touch with the official research or other work undertaken by the officers of the Department, and to promote co-operative activities and social improvements.

QUEENSLAND

Department of Justice. (*a*) *Fortieth Report of the Registrar of Friendly Societies, Building Societies, and Industrial and Provident Societies, containing a General Review of Friendly Societies in Queensland, Lists of Societies, etc., to 30 September 1925, and Financial and Numerical Statements for the year 1924.* Brisbane, 1925. 20 pp. 8d. (*b*) *Forty-first Report of the Registrar of Friendly Societies, etc. to 31 March 1926, and Financial and Numerical Statements for the half-year ended 30 June 1925.* Brisbane, 1926. 21 pp. 9d.

Department of Public Lands. *Annual Report for the Year 1925.* Brisbane, Govt. Printer, 1926. 116 pp., tables and maps. 4s. 6d.

Deals with all forms of settlement and occupation in Queensland, and gives full statistics, together with extracts from reports of district land commissioners. Especially interesting are the powers taken under the new Land Acts Amendment Act of 1925 to declare forfeiture of a Crown tenancy where the holding is not kept free of noxious plants, showing a conception of the land areas of the country as a public asset and not merely as a private investment.

—— *Report to 30 June 1926 by the Under-Secretary for Public Lands under "The Discharged Soldiers' Settlement Acts, 1917 to 1920".* Brisbane, 1926. 5 pp. 3d.

Department of Public Works. Unemployment Council. *Third Annual Report on Operations under the Unemployed Workers Insurance Act of 1922.* Brisbane, Government Printer, 1926. 16 pp., diagrams. 2s.

A considerable increase in expenditure on benefit was occasioned during the year by the closing of a large gold mine and by the drought in the north and west of the State. A large part of the report is devoted to the problems of casual and intermittent employment, which is very prevalent in Queensland, largely owing to the seasonal nature of the primary industries. Interesting figures are given showing the relative amount of benefit paid in different industries and the periods over which benefit was drawn, as well as the regular financial and other returns. Fuller information concerning the report was published in *Industrial and Labour Information*, Vol. XX, No. 8, 22 November 1926.

Office of the Chief Inspector of Machinery. *Report of the Chief Inspector of Machinery, Scaffolding and Weights and Measures for the year ended 30 June 1926.* Brisbane, 1926. 15 pp. 6d.

State Children Department. *Annual Report for the Year 1925.* Brisbane, 1926. 14 pp. 6d.

Deals with child welfare work in a number of State and other institutions under the control of the State Children Department.

SOUTH AUSTRALIA

South Australian School of Mines and Industries. *Annual Report for 1925 and Prospectus for 1926.* Adelaide, Govt. Printer, 1926. 308 pp., illustr.

TASMANIA

Mines Department. *Report of the Secretary for Mines for year ending 31 December 1925, including Reports of Inspectors of Mines, Government Geologists, Government Chemist and Assayer, Mount Cameron Water Board, etc.* Hobart, 1926. 31 pp.

BELGIUM

Ministère de l'Agriculture. Administration de l'Agriculture et de l'Horticulture. *Rapport sur la situation de l'agriculture pendant l'année 1925.* Publications du Service des Associations et de la Statistique, No. 42. Brussels, 1926. 10 pp.

Report on the position of agriculture in Belgium during 1925.

BRAZIL

Departamento da Creança. *Primeiro Congresso Brasileiro de Protecçao à Infancia (Sob o patrocinio do Exmo. Sr. Presidente da Republica) Realisado de 27 de Agosto a 5 de Setembro de 1922 por occasiao das festas do Centenario da Independencia.* 7° Boletim-1926. *Theses officiaes, Memorias e Conclusoes.* Rio de Janeiro, 1926. 1051 + VII pp.

Report of the first Congress on Child Care and Protection held in Brazil, at Rio de Janeiro, 27 August to 5 September 1922, on the occasion of the celebration of the centenary of independence. The report is prepared by Dr. Moncorso Filho, who describes the work of child protection in Brazil. The volume is in five parts devoted respectively to : sociology and legislation : assistance ; education ; medical care ; and hygiene.

CANADA

Department of Agriculture. Dominion Experimental Farms. *Report of the Director for the year ending 31 March 1926.* Ottawa, 1926. 90 pp.

Dominion Bureau of Statistics. General Statistics Branch. *The Canada Year Book 1925. The Official Statistical Annual of the Resources, History, Institutions, and Social and Economic Conditions of the Dominion.* Ottawa, 1926. XXXI + 1080 pp., map.

CHILE

Ministerio de Higiene, Asistencia, Prevision social y Trabajo. Seccion Internacional, Biblioteca y Publicaciones. *La Organización sindical en Chile, y Otros Estudios Sociales.* By Moises Poblete Troncoso. Santiago, 1926. 191 pp.

The work of Mr. Poblete Troncoso, Assistant Secretary of the Ministry of Health, Social Assistance and Welfare and Labour, on trade union organisation in Chile, is in four parts dealing respectively with freedom of association, organisation of mutual benefit societies, health insurance, and the work of women and children.

The first part includes a reprint of Chile's reply to the questionnaire of the International Labour Office on workers' freedom of association. After some general considerations, the author describes the development of trade unions in Chile from 1853 to 1925. There are now 600 workers' organisations with a total membership of over 90,000. Mr. Troncoso then examines the technical organisation of mutual benefit societies, compulsory health insurance, and labour conditions of women and children. He describes the development of social insurance during recent years, and analyses the Chilean law relating to the subject, comparing it with the laws of other countries. He dwells more particularly on the economic

aspects of compulsory insurance and examines the position of mutual benefit societies in regard to the new law. This last part of Mr. Troncoso's work was presented in the form of a report to the Pan-American Congress for Child Welfare held at Santiago in 1924.

DENMARK

Danish Ministry for Foreign Affairs and Danish Statistical Department. *Denmark 1926.* Copenhagen, Dyva and Jeppesen, 1926. 323 pp.

The year-book — of which this is the third edition — contains, in addition to the usual data supplied concerning the Government, Parliament, administration, justice, public finance, the diplomatic and consular services, etc., sections on the land and the people, education and scientific institutions, and Danish trade and industry (particularly agriculture). The information furnished is concise and up to date. A section on social conditions surveys the protection of workers, relations between workers and employers, public relief and social insurance, housing, temperance legislation, etc. Among the special articles which complete this edition of the year-book, mention may be made of a description of the Danish Statistical Department and its publications, a survey of economic conditions and the money market in 1925, and an article on the fight against tuberculosis.

ESTHONIA

Riigi Statistika Keskbüroo (Bureau Central de Statistique de l'Esthonie). (*a*) *Eesti Pollumajandus 1925. Statistiline Aastaraamat IV (IV. Annuaire de la statistique agricole 1925).* Tallinn, 1926. 201 pp.

—— (*b*) *1925 a. Pollumajandustiku Uleskirjutuse Andmed (Résultats du recensement agricole de 1925).* Tallinn, 1926. 219 pp.

As usual, the headings of the chapters and of the numerous statistical tables in these publications are given in French as well as in Esthonian. The first includes a detailed and valuable section on the wages of agricultural workers, classified as permanent, seasonal, and day workers, and as herdsmen. Wages are shown according to age group and to season of the year, and a distinction is made between cash wages and wages in kind.

The second publication deals with the size of farms and farm areas (arable, grass, forest, etc.). Different types of ownership and tenure are distinguished. Crop and stock statistics follow; also detailed statistics on agricultural machinery existing on each class of farm.

FRANCE

Conseil général de la Seine. Office départemental du placement et de la statistique du travail. *Le fonctionnement de l'Office départemental du placement et de la statistique du travail et l'organisation des secours de chômage dans le Département de la Seine pendant l'année 1925.* Rapport présenté au Conseil général de la Seine par Henri Sellier et Emile Deslandres. Paris, Imprimerie municipale, 1926. VII + 287 pp.

Detailed account of recent developments and activities of the Departmental Employment and Statistical Office of the Seine. The Office placed nearly 300,000 workers during 1925. The texts of laws, decrees and circulars relating to the placing of workers in France are given in the appendix.

GREAT BRITAIN

Board of Education. *England and Wales, Technical Schools and Schools of Art. List 111, 1922-1923.* London, H.M. Stationery Office, 1925. 74 pp. 4s.

A list of the more important technical schools and of the schools of art recognised by the Board of Education under the regulations for technical schools, etc. The arrangement of the matter is described in the explanatory note which forms an introduction to the volume. The publication is intended to serve as a general guide to the character and extent of that provision of full-time and part-time education in technology, commerce and art which is supervised by the Board.

—— *Report of H.M. Inspectors on the Educational Work of Women's Rural Institutes.* London, H.M. Stationery Office, 1926. 22 pp. 6d.

Colonial Office. *Report by H.M. Government to the Council of the League of Nations on the Administration of the British Sphere of Togoland for the year 1925.* Colonial No. 23. London, H.M. Stationery Office, 1926. 116 pp., map. 4s.

Department of Overseas Trade. *Report on the Commercial, Economic and Financial Conditions in Japan to 30 June 1926.* By R. Boulter, C.M.G. London, H.M. Stationery Office, 1926. 94 pp. 2s. 6d.

In addition to the information furnished regarding trade, finance, natural resources, transport, and communications, the report includes a section on the progress of reconstruction after the earthquake in Japan, and one on legislation and administration. A summary of various laws promulgated is given, including the Health Insurance Act and the Act on Arbitration of Labour Disputes; the changes introduced in the Factory Act of 1911 (revised in 1923 and operative from 1 July, 1926) and the provisions of the Industrial Workers' Minimum Age Act are indicated. A paragraph is devoted to the question of unemployment and the measures taken for the first time by the Government for the relief of the unemployed.

—— *Report on the Economic and Financial Situation of Egypt.* (*Dated June 1926.*) By E. Holman Mulock. London, H.M. Stationery Office, 1926. 52 pp. 1s. 6d.

Includes, under the heading "Social questions", a short review of the position as regards housing and town planning.

League of Nations. International Labour Conference. I. *Draft Convention and Recommendation adopted by the Conference at its Eighth Session, 16 May-5 June 1926.* II. *Draft Conventions and Recommendations adopted by the Conference at its Ninth Session, 7 June-24 June 1926. Authentic Texts.* London, H.M. Stationery Office, 1925. 25 pp. 1s.

The texts of the Draft Conventions and Recommendations are given in French and in English.

Ministry of Health. *Town Planning. Extracts from the Annual Report of the Ministry of Health for 1925-1926.* London, H.M. Stationery Office, 1926. 20 pp. 6d.

—— **Advisory Committee on the Welfare of the Blind.** *Sixth Report 1921-26.* London, H.M. Stationery Office, 1926. 32 pp. 9d.

—— **General Register Office.** *The Registrar-General's Statistical Review of England and Wales for the year 1925.* New Annual Series, No. 5. Tables. Part I. *Medical.* III + 520 pp. 15s. Part II. *Civil.* IV + 125 pp. 5s. London, H.M. Stationery Office, 1926.

NORTHERN IRELAND

Ministry of Agriculture. *Third Annual Report 1923-24.* Belfast, H.M. Stationery Office, 1925. 116 pp. 2s. 6d

SCOTLAND

Board of Agriculture. *Fourteenth Report of the Board of Agriculture for Scotland, being for the year ended 31 December 1925.* Edinburgh, H.M. Stationery Office, 1926. 95 pp. 2s.

The report deals in detail with land settlement and smallholdings, on which full information is given, including information on loans to settlers. Other subjects covered are education and research, the use of unemployed labour on land improvement work, rural credit, women's institutes, and rural industries.

HUNGARY

A Magyar Királyi Állami Munkaközvetítő Hivatal. *Jelentése A Hivatalnak és a Felügyeletére Bizott Hatósági Munkaközvetítőknek, 1925. Evi Működéséről.* Budapest, 1926. 37 pp.

Annual report of the Hungarian Employment Office for 1925.

INDIA

Report by Kunwar Maharaj Singh on his deputation to Mauritius. With Appendices. Delhi, Government of India Press, 1925. 50 pp., map.

Report based on an enquiry made by an official of the Government of India into the effect of further migration of unskilled labour from India on the general and economic conditions of the Indian labour already domiciled in Mauritius.

After a short outline of the history of Indian immigration into Mauritius and a description of the present material and moral conditions of Mauritian Indians, the report gives useful details concerning conditions of Indian labour in the sugar industry, which is the main support of the island, and discusses the question as to whether necessity for further immigration exists. It arrives at the conclusion that further immigration is not expedient, and it therefore recommends that no unskilled labour should in the near future be sent to Mauritius and that if the question should arise again, the Government of India should take steps to ascertain whether such immigration is really in Indian interests and whether it is favoured by local Indian opinion. Existing labour conditions meet with some criticism and recommendations are made concerning the provision of better housing accommodation for estate labourers, the employment of Indian doctors in estate hospitals, the issue of rations to the families of sick labourers, the encouragement of the use of labour-saving machinery, the enactment of legislation dealing with workmen's compensation and prohibition of the employment of children in factories. The report is dealt with at greater length in the *Monthly Record of Migration*, November 1926, page 428.

NETHERLANDS

Bedrijven, Diensten en Commissiën der Gemeente Amsterdam. *Verslag van de Gemeente Arbeidsbeurs 1925.* Amsterdam. 52 pp.

Report of the Amsterdam Labour Exchange for 1925.

Centraal Bureau voor de Statistiek. *Werkstakingen en Uitsluitingen gedurende het jaar 1925.* Statistiek van Nederland. The Hague, 1926. 26 pp.

Statistics relating to strikes and lockouts in the Netherlands during 1925.

Ministry for Foreign Affairs. *Economic Intelligence collected by the Ministry of Foreign Affairs on behalf of the Diplomatic and Consular Officers.* Supplement 1926 to *Holland and her Colonies.* The Hague, 1926. 14 pp.

NORWAY

Riksforsikringsanstalten. (a) *Sjömannsforsikringen 1923. Ulykkesforsikring for sjömenn.* (b) *Fiskeforsikringen 1923. Ulykkesforsikringen for fiskere m.v.* Norges officielle statistikk. VII. 191. Oslo, Aschehoug, 1926. 31 + 10 pp.

Annual statistical reports on the application of the Act of 18 August 1911 (amended 30 July 1915 and 19 July 1918) relating to accident insurance for seamen, and the Act of 1 April 1921 relating to accident insurance for fishermen.

Statistiske Centralbyrå. *Norges industri (opgaver over ulykkesforsikringspliktige bedrifter og arbeiders) for aret 1924.* Norges officielle statistikk. VII. 194. Oslo, Aschehoug, 1926. 23 + 18 pp.

Statistics relating to industry in Norway during 1924.

—— *Statistiske oversikter 1926.* Oslo, 1926. 67 pp.

On the occasion of the centenary of the Norwegian Constitution, in 1914, the Central Statistical Office drew up a summary of the synoptic tables which served to illustrate the economic and social development of the country over a certain number of years. In 1926 the Statistical Office published this new edition of the summary which is prepared by Dr. Ingvar Wedervang. The preface and the headings to the tables are in Norwegian and in French.

ROUMANIA

Ministerul Muncii, Cooperatiei si Asigurarilor sociale. Directia generala Muncii. Directia de Studii si Statistica. *Miscarea salariilor in anul 1925.* Bucarest, Institutul de Arte grafice "Eminescu", 1926. 269 pp.

Contains data relating to fluctuations in wages in Roumania during 1925 arranged according to towns, industries and occupations. The method employed in the preparation of this study is explained in an introductory note.

—— — – —— *Proiectelle de conventii si recomandarile adoptate de Conferintele internationale ale Muncii de la 1919-1926.* Bucarest, Institutul de arte grafice " Curierul judiciar ", 1926. IV + 315 pp.

The object of this publication, issued by the Roumanian Ministry of Labour, is to make better known the Draft Conventions and Recommendations adopted by the International Labour Conference from 1919 to 1926. The book, which contains French and Roumanian texts, is in three parts. The first gives a reprint of Part XIII of the Peace Treaty, a description of the International Labour Organisation, and the text of the Draft Conventions and Recommendations adopted by the Conference. The second part shows the state of ratification of the Draft Conventions and the action taken in regard to Recommendations adopted. The third part is devoted to the Draft Conventions ratified by Roumania and the legislative measures which their application entails.

SPAIN

Ministerio de Trabajo, Comercio e Industria. *Código del Trabajo.* Madrid, 1926. 155 pp.

Official edition of the new Spanish Labour Code approved by Legislative Decree of 23 August 1926. The volume includes a table of contents.

SWEDEN

Fastighetsnämnden. *Berättelse över fastighetsnämndens verksamhet och förvaltning år 1925.* Stadskollegiets utlatanden och memorial, Bihang Nr 38, 1926. Stockholm. K. L. Beckman, 1926. 90 pp., map.

Report of the Stockholm Municipal Committee on real estate and housing questions for 1925.

Stockholm Stads Statistiska Kontor. *Statistisk årsbok för Stockholms Stad 1925, jamte register 1921-1925.* Stockholms Stads statistik: I. Arsbok, ny följd 20. Stockholm, 1925. XVIII + 213 + 24 pp.

The information supplied in this year book, published by the Stockholm Municipal Statistical Office, is a useful addition to the data contained in the general statistical year book relating to social and economic conditions in Sweden. Special interest attaches to the chapters on hygiene, construction works, housing, economic conditions, the sale of alcoholic beverages, and wages of civil servants and industrial workers in Stockholm. The headings to the tables are given in French as well as in Swedish.

SWITZERLAND

NEUCHATEL

Département de l'Industrie. *Rapport de la Chambre cantonale du Commerce, de l'Industrie et du Travail à La Chaux-de-Fonds. Exercice de 1925.* La Chaux-de-Fonds, 1926. 42 pp.

Report of the cantonal Chamber of Commerce, Industry and Labour of La Chaux-de-Fonds for 1925.

UNITED STATES

Department of Agriculture. *Agricultural Survey of South America: Argentina and Paraguay.* By Leon M. Estabrook. Bulletin No. 1409. Washington, Govt. Printing Office, 1926. 90 pp. 20 cents.

Reference has already been made (see *International Labour Review*, Vol. XIV No. 3, Sept. 1926, p. 446) to a series of surveys of agricultural conditions in Europe undertaken by the United States Department of Agriculture. The present series, of which this is the first number, will deal with South America. General and sta

tistical information on the topography, climate, soil, population, and industries of Argentina and Paraguay is given in this bulletin.

Department of Commerce. Bureau of Mines. *Accidents in the California Petroleum Industry in 1923.* By H. C. Miller and C. T. Steidel. Technical Paper 382. Washington, Govt. Printing Office, 1926. iv + 30 pp. 5 cents.

—— —— *Accidents at Metallurgical Works in the United States during the calendar year 1924.* By William W. Adams. Technical Paper 395. Washington, Govt. Printing Office, 1926. 36 pp. 10 cents.

Department of Labour. Children's Bureau. *Dependent and Delinquent Children in Georgia.* Publication No. 161. Washington, Govt. Printing Office, 1926. v + 97 pp. 15 cents.

Federal Board for Vocational Education. *Employment Training in Civilian Vocational Rehabilitation. Definition, Characteristics, and Possibilities of Employment Training as a Means of Effecting Rehabilitation of the Disabled.* Bulletin No. 110, Civilian Vocational Rehabilitation Series No. 11. Washington, Govt. Printing Office, 1926. v + 58 pp. 10 cents.

In view of the general lack of understanding of vocational training as applied to rehabilitation, and because of the failure to appreciate its possibilities, the Civilian Vocational Rehabilitation Division of the United States Federal Board for Vocational Education instituted a study of the whole subject which is still in progress. Sufficient data, however, are considered to have been secured to warrant the publication of the above bulletin, which portrays the essential principles and underlying philosophy of the vocational training programme in rehabilitation. Its scope is indicated in the sub-title.

—— *Layouts and Equipment for Automobile School Shops. Information and Suggestions regarding Shop Layouts and Equipment for Schools giving Training in Automobile Repairing.* Bulletin No. 109, Trade and Industrial Series No. 31. Washington, Govt. Printing Office, 1926. 27 pp. 10 cents.

NON-OFFICIAL PUBLICATIONS

Allgemeiner deutscher Gewerkschaftsbund. *Amerikareise deutscher Gewerkschaftsführer.* Berlin, 1926. 256 pp.

A book consisting of four essays by various authors, members of a mission of the German General Federation of Trade Unions to the United States of America. Mr. M. Heinig deals with American industries, problems of efficiency and output, scientific management, prevention of waste, and the position of the United States in international economics. Mr. F. J. Furtwaengler writes about social conditions; he touches on emigration, occupations of the people, labour legislation, relations between employers and workers, hours and wages, prohibition and some other subjects. Mr. F. Tarnow contributes an excellent sketch of the development and present state of American trade unionism, while Mr. B. Meyer, in a short paper, deals with workers' banks. Statistics, mostly drawn from official sources, diagrams and little maps help to bear out the writers' contentions and add to the value of the volume.

—— *Jahrbuch 1925.* Berlin, 1926. 237 pp.

Year-book of the General Federation of German Trade Unions for 1925.

American Federation of Labour. Metal Trades Department. *Proceedings of the eighteenth Annual Convention held at Detroit, Michigan, 29 September–1 October 1926.* Washington. 63 pp.

American Management Association. (a) *Administrative Problems of Part-time Education.* By E. E. Sheldon, N. F. Fultz, W. W. Ohlweiler, Franklin Jones and L. L. Park. Annual Convention Series No. 47. 31 pp. (b) *The Line Executive's Part in Training.* By John A. Stevenson. Annual Convention Series No. 18. 12 pp. New York, 1926.

Angestelltenkammer Bremen. *Bericht über das Jahr 1925.* Bremen, 1926. 78 pp.

Annual report of the Employees' Chamber of Bremen. The subjects dealt with include social insurance, the weekly rest day, unemployment benefit, placing, apprenticeship, housing, etc.

A Plea for the Removal of Restrictions upon European Trade. With Description and Business Standing of Signatories. London, G. Street and Co., 1926. 7 + 6 pp.

This document is an appeal by a number of leading bankers and business men of Europe and America for the removal of the restrictions that now hamper trade, made in the belief that " the establishment of economic freedom is the best hope of restoring the commerce and the credit of the world ".

Apsley, Lord and Lady. *The Amateur Settlers.* London, Hodder and Stoughton, 1926. 227 pp. illustr., map.

Lord Apsley, who in 1923 was parliamentary private secretary to Sir William Joynson-Hicks, at that time Parliamentary Secretary to the Department of Overseas Trade, decided to go out to Australia disguised as an ordinary migrant in order to see for himself what really happens to migrants on arrival in Australia, and also to ascertain whether it is easy for the ordinary man without experience to be accepted as an assisted settler. He went out in the first place alone and obtained work on the land in Victoria ; he was afterwards joined by Lady Apsley on a group settlement in Western Australia. This book is a description of their experiences ; it also contains a rather long " interlude" on a trip through Northern Australia in a motor car.

Arbeiterkammer Bremen. *Bericht über das Jahr 1925.* Bremen, J. H. Schmalfeldt, 1926. 94 pp.

Annual report of the Workers' Chamber of Bremen for 1925.

Arbeiterrat Gross-Hamburg. *Bericht über das Jahr 1925.* Hamburg, 1926. 72 pp.

The annual report of the Workers' Council of Hamburg contains a chapter on the measures taken to combat unemployment during 1925. Another chapter shows the attitude of the Workers' Council in regard to the questions on the agenda of the eighth and ninth Sessions of the International Labour Conference.

Ashley, Sir William. *Business Economics.* London, Longmans, Green and Co., 1926. VIII + 71 pp. 2s. 6d.

Three lectures on the general nature of overhead charges, industrial integration, and allied questions entering into the conduct of modern business.

Askwith, M. E. *Profit-Sharing. An Aid to Trade Revival. An Exposition of the Case for and Theory of Profit-Sharing.* With a Foreword by the late Lord LEVERHULME and a Special Chapter on *The Coal-mining Industry.* London, Duncan Scott, 1926. 119 pp.

Association suisse de conseils d'apprentissage et de protection des apprentis. *Rapport annuel du Comité 1925-26. Renferme l'invitation à l'assemblée annuelle à Locarno le 10 octobre 1926.* 25me livraison. Burgdorf, 1926. 52 pp.

Annual report of the Swiss Association for the Protection of Apprentices for 1925-26 ; it includes the invitation to and agenda of the annual meeting held at Locarno, 10 October 1926.

Austin, Bertram and Lloyd, W. Francis. *Le secret des hauts salaires.* Preface by J. L. DUPLAN. Translated from the English by Paul LE BAILLY. Paris, Payot, 1926. 117 pp. 12 frs.

The English edition of this work was analysed in the *International Labour Review*, Vol. XIV, No. 1, July 1926, p. 142.

Baker, P. J. Noel. *The League of Nations at Work.* London, Nisbet and Co. 1926. XVI + 135 pp., illustrations and diagrams.

Told in an interesting way, with a modicum of technical detail, this history of the work of the League of Nations is specially designed for the people who, in the author's words, " have not given much thought to international affairs or who have not followed closely what has been happening in Geneva in the last few years".

The book gives a brief outline of the machinery of the League, describing the Assembly, the Council, the Secretariat. It dwells at greater length on actual achievements, showing what co-operation between nations can effect toward the realisation of the ideals which find expression in the Covenant. Short chapters are devoted to the Permanent Court of International Justice, the International Labour Organisation, and the working of the Mandates system. After describing the aims and work of the International Labour Organisation and indicating the nature of the Draft Conventions and Recommendations adopted at the Conference, the author points out that the actual change in the labour laws of the different countries is greater than would appear merely from the list of ratifying acts, and he adds : " The hopeful thing about the I.L.O. is the cautious and solid start which it has made and the sound and efficient institutional machinery which it has built up. Its sturdy framework will be needed in the future, for the work which it has done is slight compared to the immense task which lies before it. "

In the last chapter Mr. Baker briefly considers the future of the League and its work in the political, legal, industrial and social spheres. The welfare of mankind is at stake and it rests, he says, on the vital question of the maintenance of international peace ensured by a world-wide scheme for reduction and limitation of armaments.

A summary of the provisions of the Covenant is given at the beginning of the book.

Barnett, George E. *Chapters on Machinery and Labour.* Cambridge, Mass., Harvard University Press ; London, Humphrey Milford, 1926. VI + 161 pp.

Mr. Barnett describes the labour changes and difficulties incidental to the introduction of certain special kinds of labour-saving machinery (in particular the linotype, stone cutters and the stone planer, and semi-automatic and automatic bottle machines) in the United States. In the concluding chapters on the displacement of skill caused by the introduction of machinery and on trade union policy he considers the problem of machinery and labour in its more general aspects.

Bozi, Dr. Alfred and Sartorius, Otto. *Die Deutsche Wirtschaft. Ein Handbuch zum Aufbau. Aus der Praxis–Für die Praxis.* Berlin, Reimar Hobbing, 1926. 528 pp., illustr.

" Written by practicians for practicians", the work compiled by Dr. Bozi and Mr. Sartorius contains thirty-two articles on different aspects of German economy from the pen of well-known authorities on economic subjects. Among the articles dealing with labour questions may be cited : " General economy and the social question ", by D. E. Hornbeffer ; " Arts and crafts in the general economic structure ", by Dr. Weinbeck ; " The personality of the industrial employer in the economic sphere ", by Dr. Adolf Friedrichs ; " Methods of economic organisation in industrial undertakings ", by Dr. Otto Goebel ; " Quality in production ", by Dr. von Pechmann.

The articles are mostly written from the employers' standpoint, and 80 portraits of German industrial magnates are included in the book.

British Association for the Advancement of Science. *The Advancement of Science : 1926.* Addresses delivered at the Annual Meeting of the British Association in Oxford, 4-11 August, 1926. London. 6s.

Special mention may be made of the following addresses : " Biology and the Training of the Citizen ", by Prof. J. Graham Kerr ; " The Economic Development of Tropical Africa and its Effect on the Native Population ", by the Hon. W. Ormsby-Gore ; " Inheritance as an Economic Factor ", by Sir Josiah Stamp ; " Address to Education Section ", by Sir Thomas H. Holland ; and " The Relation between Cultivated Area and Population ", by Sir Daniel Hall.

British Social Hygiene Council. *Eleventh Annual Report, 1 June 1925–31 May 1926.* London. 129 pp.

Brodbeck, H. *Die Untersuchungen des Internationalen Arbeitsamtes über Wirtschaftskrisen und ihre Behebung.* In *Freiwirtschaftliches Archiv*, No. 4, April-May 1926, pp. 49-64. Hamburg.

In this lecture, which was " broadcasted ", Mr. Brodbeck analyses the study published by the International Labour Office on *Unemployment 1920-1923* (Studies and Reports, Series C, No. 8; Geneva, 1924), citing, in particular, passages relating to conditions in Switzerland.

Bues, Hermann. *Das Personal Handbuch für Arbeitsvermittler und Berufsberater.* 1. Ausgabe 1926. Bernau bei Berlin, Grüner Verlag, 1926. 189 pp. 9.75 marks.

An index to public employment offices in Germany arranged according to the importance of the towns in which they are situated and also in alphabetical order of these towns. The population of the areas over which the activities of the employment offices extend, the addresses of the latter, their subdivision into trade sections and the staff employed are indicated. The index will be brought up to date and published yearly.

—— *Die Stellung des Jugendlichen zum Beruf und zur Arbeit.* " Arbeit und Beruf " Schriftenreihe für Fragen des Arbeitsmarktes, der Erwerbslosenfürsorge, der Berufsberatung und verwandter Gebiete, Band 2. Bernau bei Berlin, Grüner Verlag, 1926. 308 pp.

A study of what the author calls the " light and shade " of the working conditions of apprentices. It is based upon the results of an enquiry covering 3,500 apprentices in Hamburg and district, selected from widely varying trades. The author has endeavoured to ascertain and compare the advantages and disadvantages attached to the position of an apprentice. The information obtained is carefully classified over various trades. The work contains interesting indications, from the point of view both of the vocational guidance offices and of young people themselves, upon the choice of a vocation.

Bund der technischen Angestellten und Beamten. *Bericht und Abrechnung über die Jahre 1924 und 1925.* Schriften des Bundes der technischen Angestellten und Beamten, Heft 29. Berlin, Industriebeamten-Verlag, 1926. 160 pp. and tables.

Report and balance sheet of the German Union of Technicians for 1924 and 1925.

Centralni Sekretariat Radnickih Komora. *Radnicki Sindikati.* Preface by Zivko Topalovic. Belgrade, Tucovic, 1926. 78 pp.

This book, entitled " Workers' Trade Unions ", contains two studies, one written by Mr. Bogdan Krekic on the trade union movement, and the other by Mr. Vladimir Vojtinsky, giving a statistical survey of international trade unionism in recent years.

M. Krekic describes the origin of the trade union movement, its differentiation into various branches, and its modern currents. He analyses in turn the different types of workers' organisations and then passes to a consideration of the moral and cultural importance of the trade union movement in general.

M. Vojtinsky examines the position of the various trade union organisations in the light of statistics, and compares their development in different countries.

Christlichsozialer Arbeiterbund der Schweiz. *Fünftes und sechstes Jahrbuch 1924-1925.* St. Gall, 1926. 88 pp.

Year-book of the Swiss Christian Workers' Union for 1924 and 1925.

Clerc, M. *La tuberculose dans la marine marchande de France.* Paris, Vigot Frères, 1926. 64 pp.

Mr. Clerc describes the programme of the antituberculosis campaign submitted to the French *Société de médecine publique* and the *Comité consultatif de la Marine marchande de France.*

After recalling the serious prevalence of tuberculosis in the mercantile marine and the prophylactic measures adopted on board ship, etc., he outlines the essential features of his programme which is based on the early detection of the disease by means of strict medical inspection of seamen before embarkation. Other measures, in particular the periodical medical inspection of seamen, are also enjoined.

The second part of the book is devoted to a study of the legal basis of pensions for tuberculous seamen, taking into account recent discoveries regarding the origin and development of the disease and the impetus given of late years to social work.

The third and last part outlines a plan for the selection of seamen in the mercantile marine involving certain administrative reforms ; the author examines how these reforms can be carried out.

The volume includes a bibliography.

Cruchaga, Carlos Valenzuela. *Politica de Bienestar del Personal en los Ferrocarriles del Estado.* Santiago, Imprenta Universitaria, 1926. 118 pp.

This work, to which the Under-Secretary for Social Welfare and Labour in Chile contributes a preface, describes the welfare measures adopted by the management for the benefit of workers and employees on the State railways. The volume is in three parts dealing respectively with : (1) social welfare and laws regulating the working conditions of railwaymen ; (2) the welfare of the staff and the organisation of work on the railways ; (3) welfare institutions. The author describes the numerous institutions created for the benefit of railwaymen in Chile and observes that the results of welfare institutions more than justify their cost.

De Blois, Lewis A. *Industrial Safety Organisation for Executive and Engineer.* New York, McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1926. IX + 328 pp.

A full analysis of this book will be given in the *International Safety Survey.*

Deutscher Baugewerksbund. *Ausserordentlicher Bundestag, Berlin, 1926.* Hamburg, 1926. 171 pp.

Report on the special Congress of the German Union of Building Operatives held in Berlin, 15-16 March 1926.

—— *Erster Ordentlicher Bundestag, Hamburg, 1924.* Hamburg, 1925. 512 pp.

Report on the first Congress of the German Union of Building Operatives held in Hamburg, September 1924.

—— *Jahrbuch 1925.* Hamburg, 1925. 605 pp.

Year-book of the German Union of Building Operatives for 1925.

Deutscher Holzarbeiter-Verband. *Jahrbuch 1925.* Berlin, 1926. 260 pp.

Year-Book of the German Wood Workers' Union for 1925.

Deutscher Metallarbeiter-Verband. *Der siebzehnte ordentliche Verbandstag des Deutschen Metallarbeiter-Verbandes in Bremen, abgehalten vom 2. bis 7. August 1926.* Stuttgart. 394 pp.

Report on the seventeenth Congress of the German Metal Workers' Union held in Bremen, 2-7 August 1926.

Deutscher Textilarbeiter-Verband. *Lehrbuch für die im Deutschen Textilarbeiter-Verband organisierten Betriebsräte.* Berlin, Textil-Praxis, Verlagsgesellschaft. VIII + 255 pp.

A handbook for members of works councils in the German textile industry, describing the technical structure and legal status of a big textile business. A synopsis of German labour legislation is given in the appendix.

Die Behörde für das Arbeitsamt Hamburg. *Jahresbericht 1925.* Hamburg, Druck von Lütcke und Wulff, 1926. 30 pp.

Report on the activities during 1925 of the Hamburg Labour Office, an autonomous institution which deals with placing, unemployment relief, and vocational guidance. During the period covered by the report, employment was found for 270,000 workers and nearly 14,000 apprentices.

Drouet, Virgilio. *Miscelanea Social.* Barcelona, Luis Tasso, 1926. 397 pp.

Some articles by Mr. Drouet which appeared recently in the South American press have been included in this new edition of his writings on different social questions. Mr. Drouet makes an interesting survey of problems peculiar to American countries.

Dünner, Dr. Julia. *Der deutsche Arbeitsnachweis im Kriege bis zum Erlass des Hilfsdienstgesetzes.* Regensburg, Berlin and Vienna, Josef Habbel. VIII + 119 pp.

The author analyses the various systems for placing workers in Germany during the war, considering in turn public, trade union and private employment agencies.

The activities of the principal public employment offices during the war are described in a special chapter. A bibliography completes the work.

Gewerkschaftsbund der Angestellten. *Der 3. deutscher Angestellten-Tag zur Wirtschafts- und Sozial-Politik, Hamburg, 1926.* Berlin. 36 pp.

Report on the third Congress of the German Union of Clerks held at Hamburg, 1926.

—— *Jahresbericht 1925.* Berlin-Zehlendorf, 1926. 184 pp.

Year-book of the German Union of Clerks for 1925.

Granovsky, Dr. A. *Land Problems in Palestine.* Authorised Translation. Foreword by the Rt. Hon. J. C. WEDGWOOD, D.S.O., M.P. London, Routledge and Sons, 1926. XVI + 104 pp. 2s. 6d.

Dr. Granovsky's book, translated from the Hebrew, deals with the problems of the acquisition, tenure, administration and control of Jewish land in Palestine, both rural and urban.

—— *Probleme der Bodenpolitik in Palästina.* Berlin, Jüdischer Verlag, 1925. 138 pp.

German edition of the above.

Grünbaum-Sachs, Hildegard. *Tiefenpsychologie und Berufsberatung.* Schriften zur Psychologie der Berufseignung und des Wirtschaftslebens, herausgegeben von Otto LIPMANN und William STERN. Heft 33. Leipzig, Johann Ambrosius Barth, 1926. 49 pp.

Explains the importance of psycho-analytical methods as applied to vocational guidance. Frau H. Grünbaum-Sachs deals successively with the fundamental connection existing between the division of labour and the science of psychology, the application of experimental methods to vocational psychology amplified by an outline of the psychology of the unconscious, the importance of psycho-analytical knowledge on the part of teachers entrusted with the study of child-psychology, and the necessity for psycho-analytical examination in connection with vocational guidance.

Güterbeamtenverband Oesterreichs. *Tätigkeits- und Rechenschaftsbericht über das Jahr 1925.* Vienna, 1926. 124 pp.

Annual report of the Austrian Union of State Employees for 1925.

Hoeniger, Dr. Heinrich, Schultz, Dr. Rudolf and Wehrle, Dr. Emil. *Jahrbuch des Arbeitsrechts und der damit zusammenhängenden Teile der Sozialökonomik.* Band VI. *Systematische Übersicht über das Schrifttum, die Rechtsprechung und die Verwaltungspraxis in Jahre 1925 nebst Sachregister.* Mannheim, Berlin, Leipzig, J. Bensheimer, 1926. XX + 483 pp.

The inevitable extension in the scope of this year-book of German labour law is shown in the addition made to the original title in the present issue. The book is now known as the " Year-book of labour law and questions of social economy connected therewith ". It is intended to serve as a reference book for both jurists and sociologists. Not only does each chapter include a special section devoted to social policy, but the part of the work dealing with general questions contains passages concerning the science of labour, technical training, social expenditure, the social crisis, etc. The method adopted in previous issues, which consisted in leaving to the respective authors the exposition of the works reviewed, has been retained and developed. A concise summary at the beginning of each chapter provides the reader with an excellent general idea of the contribution made by German writers to the study of labour law during 1925. A chapter is devoted to international labour legislation and another to labour legislation in countries other than Germany. The first place among the publications reviewed is assigned to those of the International Labour Office and to those of German authors. It may be suggested that if authors of different nationalities would communicate to the editors short notices concerning any of their works which relate to labour legislation the inclusion of such data would materially add to the indisputable value of the year-book.

Hostench, Francisco. *El Derecho del Trabajo en el Tratado de Versalles y su interpretación.* Barcelona, 1926. 20 pp.

Address on the labour provisions of the Peace Treaty and their interpretation.

Indian Industrial and Commercial Congress. *Report of the Third Session of the Indian Industrial and Commercial Congress held at Delhi, 19 and 20 February 1926.* Bombay, 1926. 182 pp.

An account of the proceedings of the Congress, with the texts of the speeches and the resolutions adopted.

Indian Merchants, Chamber. *Annual Report for the year 1925.* Presented to the Annual Meeting of the Chamber held 23 January 1926. Bombay, 1926. LXXVI + 720 pp.

Irish Labour Party and Trade Union Congress. *Labour and Agriculture. An Outline of the Agricultural Policy of the Irish Labour Party.* Labour Policy Pamphlets No. 2. Dublin, 1926. 23 pp. 3d.

Some preliminary arguments tend to show that Ireland is as yet far from producing its maximum agricultural wealth, and that a progressive decline of population has accompanied the change from tillage to grazing which took place during the last half of the nineteenth century in Ireland. The principal idea is then developed that the test of a good agricultural system is not the profit made by the individual farmer, but the amount of food which he is able to supply to the community ; in other words, use and not wealth should be the criterion. The particular problem of the present day, in the eyes of the Irish Labour Party, is to reconstitute the Irish home market for agricultural produce and to supply it from Ireland, and to treat export as the second, and not as the primary, article of an agricultural policy. Practical measures proposed include certain forms of subsidy, e.g. the guarantee of a fixed rate of interest for some years to capital employed in the dressed meat industry, a minimum price for limited quantities of home grown wheat, control of the grain supply being entrusted to a National Grain Board. The main contention of the pamphlet is that agriculture is a public service and not simply a profit-bearing industry.

—— *Report of the National Executive for the year 1925-1926.* Dublin. 42 pp.

Istituto Coloniale Italiano. *Annuario delle colonie italiane 1926.* Rome, 1926. 511 pp., maps. 20 lire.

The first year-book issued by the Italian Colonial Institute presents a concise and fairly comprehensive review of the situation in the different Italian colonial possessions. The first part includes a list of public offices, societies and publications relating to Italian colonies. In the second part a special chapter is devoted to each of these colonies, giving information respecting their history, geography and population, administration, justice, education, defence, fiscal laws, customs, finance and currency. It is to be regretted that this excellent work provides such scanty information on working conditions.

Jenks, Jeremiah W., and Lauck, W. Jett. *The Immigration Problem. A Study of American Immigration Conditions and Needs.* Sixth Edition, revised and enlarged by Rufus D. Smith, M.A. New York and London, Funk and Wagnalls Company, 1926. XXVII + 717 pp.

The sixth edition of a well-known book revised and enlarged. The first edition was published in 1912 very shortly after the meeting of the United States Immigration Commission, with which both the authors were closely associated. The immigration problem in the United States as the authors see it resolves itself into four parts : (1) to fix for the United States a standard of civilisation, (2) to secure all the facts about immigration bearing in any important way upon the civilisation of the country, (3) to measure as carefully as possible the influence of these facts upon that standard, and (4) if immigration and the conditions brought about by it are affecting the civilisation of the United States unfavourably, to suggest measures — either governmental or social — that will prove an efficient remedy.

The question is dealt with in this book in an exhaustive manner, attention being paid to the political, economic and social aspects of immigration in general and the question of Oriental immigration in particular. While they claim to be interpreters of facts and not advocates of any specific doctrine, the authors think that a rather

rigid restriction of immigration is necessary for the present " until more progress is made in solving the problems of assimilation and distribution". This new edition includes fresh material on immigration legislation in countries other than the United States, on race problems on the Pacific Coast and on the Act of 1924 ; the statistics given have been revised in the light of the census of 1920.

Joint Rural Community Council. *Rural Community Council Handbook — Derbyshire, Leicestershire, and Nottinghamshire.* Nottingham, Joint Rural Community Council at University College, 1926. 90 pp.

A small handbook containing both a record of the work carried on by the rural community councils of the three counties named and some most necessary and practical information about local public and voluntary services likely to be useful to all who are taking part in rural community work. The aims of the rural community councils are to co-ordinate scattered efforts of voluntary and official bodies within a rural area. There are signs that a more positive policy is growing up out of the very success which has attended the work done hitherto: nothing less than the redressing of the balance of modern life, which, in the opinion of the President of the Joint Council for the three counties, is grossly under-developed on the rural side. A point emphasised is that, to hold its own with the town, the rural community must not merely be organised but " highly organised ", and must insist, as an organised unit, on adequate representation on public bodies.

Kammer für Arbeiter und Angestellte in Wien. *15. Bericht, XXIX. Vollversammlung am 17 April 1926.* Vienna. 31 pp.

Report on the annual meeting of the Vienna Chamber of Workers and Employees held 17 April 1926. Contains an outline of the social legislation enacted during 1925.

—— *Wirtschafts-Statistisches Jahrbuch 1925.* Vienna, Verlag " Arbeit und Wirtschaft", 1926. 348 pp.

Valuable data are supplied in this statistical year-book of the Vienna Chamber of Workers and Employees concerning public finance, social insurance, the money market, wholesale and retail prices, trade, industry, transport and public offices.

Karleby, Nils. *Socialismen inför verkligheten. Studier över socialdemokratisk askadning och nutidspolitik.* Stockholm, Tidens förlag, 1926. VIII + 282 pp. 5.75 kr.

Especially since the war, the Swedish social-democratic movement has attracted attention by a certain independence of theoretical outlook as well as by the practical qualities it has displayed. Since 1917 the party has been responsible, with few interruptions, for the government of the country. Perhaps the most prominent theoretician of the movement is the author of the above book, who — until his death some months ago — acted as secretary to the " Socialisation Commission" set up by the Branting Cabinet in 1920. In this capacity he prepared several of the reports of the Commission, for instance those on the position of the socialisation question in Denmark and Austria.

In this last work on " Socialism face to face with reality ", which has aroused much interest in various political circles in Sweden, he summarises his views on the problem of socialisation.

Kerken, Georges Van der. *Rapport sur le régime des cessions et des concessions au Congo.* Congrès colonial belge, 6 et 7 février 1926. 31 pp.

Report on land grants and concessions in the Belgian Congo submitted by Mr. Van der Kerken, former Deputy Governor-General of the Belgian Congo, to the Belgian Colonial Congress held 6-7 February 1926.

Kerviller, G. de. *La navigation intérieure en France pendant la guerre.* Economic and Social History of the World War (French series). Publications of the Carnegie Endowment for International Peace, Division of Economics and History. Paris, les Presses universitaires de France ; New Haven, U.S.A., Yale University Press. XII + 130 pp., 2 maps.

A study on inland waterways in France during the war, which describes the general situation in 1914 (freight traffic, organisation, etc), the events affecting it from 2 August 1914 to 2 November 1915, when special regulations respecting

inland waterways came into force, developments from that date to the Armistice, the results of military control, and, finally, the situation after the war.

Latvijas Piensaimniecibas Centralas Savieniba. *Piecu gadu dariba (1921-1926).* Riga, 1926. 77 pp.

Report on the activities of the Central Union of Latvian Co-operative Dairies from 1921 to 1926. During the period covered, the quantity of butter exported by these societies rose from 0.13 to 10.46 per cent. of the total amount of butter exported by Latvia ; the value of the latter during that period rose from 29,313,126 to 179,578,897 lats.

Lavergne, Bernard. *L'ordre coopératif. Etude générale de la coopération de consommation.* Vol. I. *Les faits. Un type économique nouveau : la régie coopérative.* Paris, Félix Alcan, 1926. XII + 601 pp.

The *régies coopératives* described by Mr. Lavergne are societies or joint-stock companies having certain features in common with co-operative distributive societies and in which the shares are held by public bodies, the state, departmental, provincial or communal authorities, etc.

After examining the modern methods adopted by distributive co-operative societies, the author describes the working of and results achieved by some ten *régies coopératives* now existing in Belgium. He then considers the proposed organisation of *régies coopératives* in France authorised under Acts already passed or to be formed as a result of laws still before the Chamber : the *Compagnie nationale du Rhône*, the proposed *régies coopératives* to be created in connection with the utilisation of the waters of the Dordogne, the working of the Alsatian potassium mines and the Toulouse synthetic ammonia factory.

Mr. Lavergne points out defects of the " national industrial offices" (*offices nationaux industriels*) and certain publicly administered undertakings ; he then traces the developments which have led public authorities to assimilate the organisation of concerns under their control to that of the *régies coopératives* and even to adopt that form of society. Important extension on these lines, considered in its theoretical aspect, prepares the way, he says, to a " co-operative order " of society, differing, as he explains, not only from capitalism but also from state socialism and syndicalism.

Levainville, M. J. *Rouen pendant la guerre.* Economic and Social History of the World War (French series). Publications of the Carnegie Endowment for International Peace, Division of Economics and History. Paris, les Presses universitaires de France ; New Haven, U.S.A., Yale University Press. XII + 48 pp.

One of a series of monographs describing the organisation and work of a number of important French provincial towns in dealing with the problems raised by the war and the local social history. Mr. Levainville deals more particularly with the economic situation of Rouen during this period.

Los Códigos soviéticos. Código de la familia y código civil. Translated by J. PATOUILLET and E. LAMBERT. Buenos Aires, 1926. 284 pp.

Translation of two codes of laws of Soviet Russia with a short preface. Reference was made to the French edition of this work in the *International Labour Review*, Vol. XII, No. 2, August 1925, p. 311.

Malden, W. J. *Physical Culture in Farm Work. A Systematic Training for Workers on the Land, Large Farm, Small Holding, and Allotment.* London, Vinton. XVI + 92 pp.

The great gap between good and bad agricultural practice and the too frequent prevalence of awkward movements, ignorant waste of muscle power, and bad work are emphasised in this little book, written by one who claims to have been brought up in a district (Bedfordshire) where the quintessence of agricultural skill in England used to be found. The author preaches what may be called the gospel of skill. It should, however, be observed that his practical advice is founded on a selection of observations such as occur to the experienced craftsman, backed by the application of certain mechanical principles ; he makes no pretence to have analysed

motions by scientific measurement of output or fatigue. His book, therefore, does not claim to be a description of what is usually known as " motion study " in agriculture.

Masse, René. *La production des richesses.* Preface by Raphael-Georges Levy. Paris, Marcel Giard, 1925. xvii + 979 pp. 50 frs.

In undertaking a study of the vital problem of the production of wealth the author aimed at the same time at contributing towards the improvement of production in France, the essential element in national prosperity. After a survey of the factors, general mechanism and organisation of production, he examines in the first, second and third parts of the volume the following factors : " nature ", " labour ", and " capital ". In the fourth, he considers the combination of these factors and the mechanism of modern production. The work contains a detailed list and analytical table of contents.

Merchants' Association of New York. *Year Book 1926.* New York. 332 pp.

Michels, Robert. *Zur Soziologie des Parteiwesens in der modernen Demokratie. Untersuchungen über die oligarchischen Tendenzen des Gruppenlebens.* 2. Auflage. Leipzig, A. Kröner, 1925. xxxv + 528 pp.

This book is a valuable contribution to group psychology. It is devoted to a study of the nature of modern political parties and particularly of the rôle of the leaders within the parties. The author is keenly aware of the limitations of democracy as a means for realising self-government of the masses. He quotes an array of facts to demonstrate that democracy is bound to tend towards oligarchy. This is most obvious in the case of the socialist parties. The leaders of the wealthy exert less influence over members of their class than the leaders of the poor. Taken as a whole the latter commonly follow their leader blindly because their limited education does not enable them to form a reliable opinion of him or to estimate in advance the value of his actions. History shows the tendency towards oligarchy to be inevitable, but the dangers arising in its sequence may be lessened.

Molle, Dr. Fritz. *Das Eichsfeld als Angangsbezirk für Arbeiterwanderungen.* Beiträge zur mitteldeutschen Wirtschaftsgeschichte und Wirtschaftskunde. Herausgegeben von Prof. Dr. G. Aubin. Halberstadt, H. Meyer, 1925. xvi + 210 pp. 9 marks.

Study on the theoretical and practical aspects of home colonisation in Germany. The greater part of the book is devoted to an examination of the prospects of successful colonisation of a district situated in Central Germany, north-west of Mainz, measuring about 500 square kilometres. The concluding chapter shows the numerical importance and the distribution according to trade of migrants within German borders.

Mullins, George W. *Unemployment. The Gateway to a New Life.* London, Longmans, Green and Co., 1926. xiii + 140 pp.

The author sets out to find the true and fundamental cause of unemployment, which he describes as a problem of capital as well as of labour. He passes in rapid review many " supposed causes " of unemployment, ranging from the faults of the unemployed man to over-capitalisation and currency inflation. All of these he rejects, finding that each fails to explain some aspect of unemployment, and concludes that the explanations which are not actually erroneous refer only to contributory causes, and not to the fundamental cause of unemployment.

Adopting the well-known device of imagining a simplified " backwoodsman " civilisation, and tracing its development into the complex forms of modern life, he arrives at the conclusion that the real cause of unemployment is a lack of balance between agriculture and industry. Industry can safely develop, he argues, only in so far as agriculture provides, over and above its own needs, enough food for the industrial workers and also a market for the products of industry. In the present state of industrial development there is a continual shortage of food, veiled though it be by low standards of living. Mr. Mullins analyses the structure of the modern economic system, the function and effects of trade, etc. in an interesting and closely reasoned fashion.

The primary remedy which he advocates is " the marriage of agriculture and industry ". Factories should be placed in the country, each worker having a house and small holding sufficient to grow all the vegetables, fruit, etc. required by his family. Working hours would be reduced and multiple shifts worked, thus absorbing a greater number of workers and keeping plant in operation for most of the twenty-four hours. The increased leisure of the workers would be employed in growing food for their own use, thus at least compensating for the reduction in money wages consequent on the reduction in hours. Large-scale farming by group settlements in the Dominions would supplement the results of small-scale intensive farming in Great Britain.

Recognising that such a radical change in economic organisation — which he characterises as a new civilisation — cannot be effected immediately or suddenly, Mr. Mullins outlines various secondary remedies to ease the transition or supplement the new scheme. These include lowering the cost of production by economies in selling and distribution, greater use of machinery, amalgamation and vertical integration, and possibly lower wages in some export trades ; loans for forced development in the Dominions ; selective and provisional protection ; a radical reconstruction of the unemployment insurance scheme ; and a new partnership between workers and employers.

While the book is perhaps more successful in analysing the present situation than in outlining remedies, it offers an original and suggestive treatment of an old and much-discussed problem.

National Federation of Women's Institutes. *Ninth Annual Report for the period ended 31 December 1925.* London, 1926. 166 pp.

The Ninth Annual Report of the National Federation of Women's Institutes gives a resumé of the progress made during 1925. 328 new Institutes were formed, the total number in existence on 31 December being 3,507 ; 38 institutes, however, are reported as having lapsed. Perhaps the most striking feature of the development in 1925 is the tacit recognition by the educational world of the importance of the institute movement as part of the adult education movement. Since the curtailing of the Fisher Education Act in 1921 on the ground of national economy and the consequent abandonment of any attempt at a comprehensive scheme of state adult education, the educational work of voluntary societies has assumed a new importance. Four schools, attended by 53 students, for the training of voluntary county officers were held during the year, one in Exeter, one in Norwich, one in Ambergate, and one in Aberyswyth. Membership of the Guild of Learners (Handicrafts Section) increased by 163 during 1925, the total membership now being 983. Glove making, embroidery, leather work, basket making and raffia work seem to be the most popular crafts taught. A school for training speakers on the agricultural side of the movement was held in Lichfield in July. This is the first school of this kind which has been organised. Twelve students from eight county federations attended and it is hoped that they will do useful work in their own counties, particularly by means of introductory talks which will lead to more technical lectures or demonstrations by agricultural experts.

Continued attention was given to increasing the interest taken in music, drama, village libraries, etc.

The National Federation of Women's Institutes co-operates with various other organisations, among which may be mentioned the Adult Education Advisory Committee of the Board of Education, the National Council of Social Service, the Women's Advisory Committee of the League of Nations, etc.

Neuburger, Otto. *Bedeutung und Umfang der Berufsberatung.* Kurzgefasstes Handwörterbuch. Zugleich zweite Auflage von Bedeutung und Organisation der Berufsberatung von Dr. Konrad. Munich, Bayer. Kommunalschriften-Verlag, 1926. 172 pp.

Mr. Neuberger, of the Munich Labour Office, has revised and issued in the form of a lexicon a volume originally published in 1918 under the title " Importance and organisation of vocational guidance ". The data relating to the choice of a profession and the work accomplished in the field of vocational guidance in Germany are now arranged in alphabetical order.

Ogilvie, F. W. *Industrial Conflict.* Oxford University Press, 1926. 39 pp.

An essay on the relations existing between industry and the state in regard to industrial disputes. The author argues that " the trouble is not so much that good will is lacking... as that there are not yet any recognised principles which can be applied to the settlement of disputes, and no organisation through which those principles, if they existed, could be made effective ". He pleads for a joint organisation of employers and employed, on a national scale, which could discuss the many problems concerning more than a single industry. and work out principles for their solution.

Ohio State Federation of Labour. *Proceedings of the Forty-third Annual Convention held at Akron, Ohio, 26-29 July 1926.* 164 pp.

Rand School of Social Science. Labour Research Department. *The American Labour Year Book 1926.* New York. 571 pp.

Sassenbach, J. *Twenty-five Years of International Trade Unionism.* International Trade Union Library Nos. 4-5. Amsterdam, International Federation of Trade Unions. 1926. 140 pp.

Also published in French and German.

Schwarz, Fritz. *Segen und Fluch des Geldes in der Geschichte der Völker.* Berne, Verlag des Pestalozzi-Fellenberg-Hauses, 1925. 258 pp.

Historical study on money throughout the ages. The author examines the relation between monetary fluctuations and economic crises.

Silbe, Dr. C. *Die Ertragsgestaltung in der Industrie.* Wirtschaftsstudien 5. Karlsruhe, G. Braun, 1926. 98 pp.

Study on the productivity of industry in relation to ground rent. A copious bibliography is included.

Sommerfeld, Th. *Atlas der Gewerblichen Gesundheitspflege.* Band I. *Gesundheitspflege in der Holzindustrie, in der Metallindustrie, in der Industrie der Steine und Erden.* Berlin, Preussische Verlagsanstalt, 1926. 166 pp., 114 illustrations and 8 coloured plates.

In this work, which he considers the culmination of his activities in connection with social hygiene, the author sets forth, in tables and pictures, the causes and consequences of occupational injuries and preventive measures against accidents in various industries. This first volume is devoted to the wood, metal, stone and pottery industries. The technique of each trade, the risks involved, and safety measures enjoined are indicated ; numerous illustrations help to make these quite clear. The illustrations relating to occupational lesions are in several colours. Those relating to plant show in blue the apparatus for the elimination of dusts, fumes and gases.

Tassinari, G. *Saggio intorno alla Distribuzione del Reddito nell' Agricoltura Italiana.* Piacenza, Federazione Italiana dei Consorzi Agrari, 1926. 180 pp.

The author, professor of rural economy in the Agricultural College of Bologna and well known for his studies on important questions of agricultural economy and policy, attempts, in this work, to determine the distribution of income derived from land, i.e. the proportion allocated to the remuneration of labour, management and administration, interest on capital, and profit. Mr. Tassinari bases his conclusions on a study of Italian farms of different types. He describes each type of farm, indicates the capital invested, the value of the produce and the costs of cultivation, and computes the net profit. He then examines how this profit is distributed.

True, H. *Hygiène oculaire et inspection du travail.* Paris, Masson et Cie., 1926. 184 pp. 12 frs. + 20 per cent.

The author examines the effects of working conditions on the visual capacities of workers in special occupations, offices, shops, workshops, factories, mines, agriculture, on railways, in the army and in the navy, indicating the best working conditions and methods of inspection. The first part is devoted to the eye and the visual capacity of the worker : anatomy, physiology and pathology ; the second to general and special working conditions in occupations requiring good eyesight :

working premises, illumination, equipment, special trades and apprenticeship. The third part deals with accidents to the eye, occupational diseases of the eye, diagnosis, simulation and dissimulation under medical examination. The fourth part is devoted to labour inspection and its results. A special chapter is given to the protection of the worker's eyesight through personal care and by social institutions, laws, regulations and labour inspection. The volume includes a bibliography.

Union centrale des Associations patronales suisses. *Rapport du Comité central sur l'activité de l'Union durant l'année 1925.* Dix-huitième exercice. Lausanne, 1926. 65 pp.

Report on the activities of the Central Union of Swiss Employers' Associations for 1925. The report is also published in German.

Union des industries métallurgiques et minières de la construction mécanique, électrique et métallique, et des industries qui s'y rattachent. *Annuaire 1926-1927. Législation sociale, ouvrière et fiscale, textes et commentaires.* Paris, 1926. XXVIII + 974 pp.

Year book of the French Union of Metal and Mining Engineering, Electrical and Allied Industries for 1926-1927, including a summary of social, labour and fiscal legislation and a commentary.

Unja Zwiaskow Spoldzielczych w Polsce. *Poglad na Spóldzielczosc Polska ze szczególnem uwzglednieniem Unji Zwiazków Spóldzielczych w Polsce.* Posnan, Spoldzielni Wydawniczej U. Z. S., 1926. 27 pp.

Union of Joint Co-operative Societies in Poland. *Review of Polish Co-operation, giving special attention to the Union of Joint Co-operative Societies in Poland.* Posnan, Editorial Co-operative Society of the U. of J.C.S., 1926. 14 pp.

English translation of the preceding publication.

Vance, Ray. *Business and Investment Forecasting. Forecasting Methods and Their Application.* Second edition, revised. New York and London, Harper and Bros., 1925. XII + 187 pp.

The first edition of this book was analysed in the *International Labour Review*, Vol. VIII, No. 3, September 1923, p. 480.

Vater, Aage. *Haandbog i Arbejdslosheds Lovgivningen.* Copenhagen, G.E.C. Gads Forlag, 1925. 570 pp.

Detailed commentary on Danish legislation relating to placing and insurance against unemployment. Designed for the information of the worker, the book contains particulars concerning a large number of concrete cases. The text of the laws in force relating to the subject is given in the appendix. Reference is facilitated by a good index.

Verband der Deutschen Buchdrucker. *Bericht über das Jahr 1925.* Berlin, 1926. 69 pp.

Report of the German Printers' Union for 1925.

—— *Protocoll des 13. Verbandstages abgehalten vom 21. bis 26. Juni 1926 in Berlin.* Berlin, 1926. 274 pp.

Proceedings of the thirteenth Congress of the German Printers' Union held in Berlin, 21-26 June 1916.

Verband der Krankenkassen Berlin. *Jahrbuch 1925 der Ambulatorien.* Herausgegeben von der Leitung der Ambulatorien des Verbandes der Krankenkassen Berlin. Berlin, 1926. 189 pp.

The Federation of Health Insurance Funds of Berlin created, during 1924 and 1925, a large number of dispensaries, some of which are designed for the families of insured persons. The first year-book issued by the directors of these dispensaries describes the working of the institutions, their equipment for the work of diagnosis and therapeutics and their importance as agents of medical assistance granted by the Insurance Funds. The administrative section of the year-book contains a series of articles on social hygiene by practitioners and specialists attached to the

dispensaries. Special mention may be made of the articles contributed by Dr. Reckzeh on medical care in health insurance and Dr. Marx on housing conditions of tuberculous patients, and the articles by various authors on diagnostic and therapeutical methods employed in the dispensaries.

Verband der Kupferschmiede Deutschlands. *Rechenschaftsbericht des Vorstandes und Protokoll der Verhandlungen der 11. ordentlichen generalversammlung, abgehalten vom 27. Juni bis 1. Juli 1926 in Leipzig.* Berlin, 1926. 181 pp. 75 pfennigs.

Report of the Executive Committee of the German Coppersmiths' Union and proceedings of the eleventh Congress held in Leipzig, 27 June–1 July, 1926.

Verband Schweizerischer Arbeitsämter. *Einundzwanzigster Geschäfts-Bericht für das Jahr 1925.* Zurich-Wipkingen. 27 pp.

Report of the Swiss Association of Labour Offices for 1925.

—— *Protokoll der VIII. Verbandsversammlung, Lugano, 3. Oktober 1925.* Zurich-Wipkingen, Buchdruckerei Siegfried und Cie. 61 pp.

The report of the annual meeting of the Swiss Association of Labour Offices held at Lugano, 3 October 1925, contains a study by Mr. J. Chéneval, of the Federal Labour Office, Berne, on the various measures which can be taken by public employment offices to guard against too great an influx of foreign workers in the different trades.

West Sussex Rural Community Council. *Handbook 1926.* Chichester. 42 pp.

Woodward, J. H. *Financing Pension Plans.* Financial Executives' Series, No. 18 New York, American Management Association, 1926. 28 pp.

This paper, the work of an actuary, describes methods of computing the cost and calculating the necessary reserves to be set aside by the employer in connexion with non-contributory pension plans.

Wössner, Dr. Anna. *Das Angestelltenproblem in den Schweiz-Konsumvereinen.* Basle, Buchdrückerei des V.S.K., 1926. viii + 213 pp.

Abundant information is furnished in the pages of this work concerning the economic organisation of Swiss distributive co-operative societies, labour regulations, wages of employees (the subject of 41 tables), wages and output in distributive co-operative societies compared with those in commercial undertakings, and attempts made with a view to establishing an understanding between co-operative societies and trade unions. Dr. Wössner raises, moreover, some general questions concerning the organisation of work in distributive co-operative societies which are of interest to co-operators in every country.

Yoshitomi, M. *Les conflits nippo-américains et le problème du Pacifique.* With Prefaces by Michel Revon and Y. Sugimura. Paris, A. Pedone, 1926. xv+388 pp.

This book traces the history of the relations between Japan and the United States with regard to the closely associated questions of the admission and treatment of Japanese in the latter country. The author notes a period of cordiality (1853-1895), a period during which antagonism was shown to individual Japanese (1895-1905), and finally a period of legislative anti-Japanese activity, first in the Pacific States, and later in Congress, culminating in the exclusion of Japanese by the Act of 1924. He examines the various arguments brought forward in support of the exclusion policy, sociological arguments (such as the alleged inability to assimilate), economic arguments (alleged under-cutting), political considerations and the legal situation, more particularly from the point of view of international law. The author's conclusion is that the American attitude is due entirely to " race prejudice accentuated by jealousy of the superiority of the Japanese displayed either in America or in international life ".

The book is for the most part well documented and it is to be anticipated that Mr. Yoshitomi will pursue his studies with a view to further publications on the subject.

OTHER PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED BY THE OFFICE

Keller, Dr. Theo. *Die Elektrizitätsversorgung der Stadt Zürich.* Zürcher Volkswirtschaftliche Forschungen herausgegeben von Dr. M. Saitzew, Heft 9. Zurich, Girsberger und Co., 1926. IX + 197 pp.

Mukherjee, B. *The Labour Government's First Budget.* Reprinted from the *Lucknow University Journal*, Vol. III, No. 2. 17 pp.

Nyiri, Jules. *Ce que fut la Révolution d'octobre 1918 en Hongrie.* Translated from the Magyar by Paul Sandor. Paris, André Delpleuch, 1926. 125 pp. 8 fr.

Sturzo, Luigi. *Italy and Facismo.* Translated by Barbara Barclay Carter. Preface by Gilbert Murray. London, Faber and Gwyer, 1926. IX + 305 pp.

Thuring, Charles Franklin. *Human Australasia.* Studies of Society and of Education in Australia and New Zealand. New York, The Macmillan Company, 1923. 270 pp.

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The New German Labour Protection Bill

by

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The Bill on Labour Protection which has just been published and is at present under discussion in Germany has been in preparation for some considerable time, and embodies the result of long study and deliberation by Government and other experts. It marks an important stage in the progress of German labour legislation. A committee was appointed in 1919 to prepare materials for a complete Labour Code, in accordance with the terms of the new Constitution. For reasons of expediency the Committee has found it necessary to submit to the Reichstag separate measures on various subjects which called for immediate regulation, and legislation has already been adopted on works councils, employment exchanges, conciliation, and labour courts. The present Bill deals with labour protection, including safety and hygiene, hours of labour (with special regulations for women and young workers and for night work in bakeries), the weekly rest, the closing of shops, and labour inspection. The most urgent, and the most important, part of the Bill is that dealing with hours of work, as the provisional regulations of the Hours of Work Order of 1923 give rise to serious objections from various quarters. The provisions on this subject are in general agreement with those of the Washington Hours Convention, the Bill being in fact intended to make possible the ratification of this and certain other international Conventions.

Much of the Bill necessarily repeats the provisions of existing legislation, co-ordinated, unified, and often improved, but there are many important innovations. The publication of the Bill has been awaited with much interest, not only in Germany, but in other countries as well, and readers of the Review *will undoubtedly welcome the following authoritative and detailed account of this important measure.*

HISTORICAL SURVEY

THE history of German social policy may be divided into four periods. The initial period of labour protection began with a Prussian Children's Protection Act of 1839 which was

modelled on British legislation for the protection of children during the period 1802 to 1833. In the Industrial Code of the North German Confederation of 1869, later on the Industrial Code of the German Empire, certain regulations for the protection of children and young persons were made general, to which further regulations for the protection of women were added by an Amending Act of 1878. The second period was introduced by the Imperial Message of 17 November 1881 announcing the enactment of workers' insurance legislation. This was the period of Bismarck's social welfare policy. The Circular issued by the Emperor William II in February 1890 inaugurated the third period, during which labour protection was reinforced (by the Act of 1891), while at the same time the workers were given a larger share in social administration (on workers' committees and in industrial or commercial courts). The Workers' Protection Act of 1891 introduced regulations on Sunday rest and additional safety regulations, and extended the protection of young persons and women by the fixing of a maximum working day and prohibition of night work. Subsequent laws added provisions on shop closing, and the maximum working day in unhealthy undertakings, strengthened the regulations for the protection of children, and introduced measures for the protection of home workers. The fourth period is that of the social policy formed under the influence of the war, the demobilisation, and the revolution. Its characteristic feature is the principle of the equal rights of employers and of workers, which is realised in practice by the full recognition of the trade unions, the privileged legal status conferred on collective agreements, and the establishment by public law[1] of bodies for the representation of labour within the undertaking. At the same time a considerable step in advance has also been made in the field of labour protection; formerly this had been limited mainly to women, young persons, and children, but now, with the statutory introduction of the 8-hour day, it covers also adult males.

Although the introduction of the 8-hour day was an outcome of the Revolution, only Orders were issued for the purpose, the fundamental idea being merely to provide for the period of transition

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[1] In Germany, public law (*öffentliches Recht*) is the body of law governing the relations between the state and the subject, in contradistinction to private law (*Privatrecht*), which governs the relations between individuals as such. Rights and duties under public law must be enforced by state. [*Translator's note.*]

from a war to a peace economy. These were the Demobilisation Orders of 23 November 1918 on the hours of work of industrial workers, and of 18 March 1919 on salaried employees. Owing to the transitional nature of these Orders the drafting of a definitive Bill was immediately undertaken. A draft Bill on the hours of work of industrial workers was laid before the Federal Council and the Federal Economic Council in August 1921, and a similar draft on the hours of work of salaried employees in May 1922. The Federal Economic Council had submitted its report in the spring of 1923, when the events in the Ruhr shattered the very foundations of the already much weakened economic structure of Germany. The disastrous economic situation produced a general conviction that revival would be impossible if the rigid regulations of the Demobilisation Orders were not relaxed at least temporarily. A new Bill was consequently drafted and submitted to the Reichstag in October 1923; but before the Reichstag had succeeded in coming to a decision, on 17 November 1923, the period of validity of the Demobilisation Orders expired.

In virtue of an Emergency Powers Act the Government was then in a position to issue Orders on certain matters with the force of law. This power was used to issue an Hours of Work Order on 21 December 1923, which with a few slight amendments reproduced the Bill previously submitted to the Reichstag. This Order restored the Demobilisation Orders with certain important modifications; but although it thus reintroduced the principle of the 8-hour day, much wider exceptions than before were allowed. Above all, the right was granted, within certain limits and on certain conditions, to fix longer hours by collective agreement. In the absence of a collective agreement an extension of hours might be sanctioned by the authorities. At first, advantage was taken of this right in no small measure, so that the working day was often extended by collective agreement to 9 or 10 hours. In the severe crisis caused by the culmination of inflation, the shocks to German industry due to the occupation of the Ruhr, and the stabilisation of the currency, an urgent task, at first regarded as only transitional, was thereby fulfilled. But in fact, although the Hours of Work Order of 1923 is still in force, there has been a tendency towards reduction of the hours actually worked. According to trade union statistics there was a substantial reduction of actual hours from May 1924 to November 1924 and to November 1925. According to the official statistics of collective agreements, on 1 January 1925 10.9 per cent. of the workers covered had a

regular working week of over 48 hours, but considerably more than half that number were engaged in agricultural undertakings, to which the Hours of Work Order does not apply. In spite of this tendency, and in spite of the abolition of the two-shift system in blast furnaces and coke ovens by an Administrative Order issued under the Hours of Work Order in January 1925, the demands of the workers for the amendment of the Hours of Work Order became more and more insistent. The Government too could not remain blind to the need for amendment; and the intention to introduce legislation for this purpose was notified by the Federal Minister of Labour, Dr. Brauns, in the *Reichsarbeitsblatt* for 1 September 1924.

The Basis of Revision

In examining the hours of work regulations with a view to their revision it was impossible not to consider whether they should be adapted to the provisions of the Washington Convention on the 8-hour day. On the one hand, the workers claimed this adaptation as a minimum, and desired the ratification of the Convention; the employers, on the other, although friendly towards the principle of the 8-hour day, demanded much greater flexibility than is provided in the Convention. In all other countries too this question has of late years been the subject of heated controversy, sometimes leading to express refusal to ratify, as in Switzerland and Sweden. Other countries maintain that their legislation is consonant with the provisions of the Convention and have ratified, either unconditionally, like Czechoslovakia and Belgium, or, like Austria and Italy, on condition that other countries also ratify. Finally, France is also contemplating conditional ratification.

It was particularly difficult for the German Government to decide the question of ratification. For the Treaty of Versailles, and the agreement for its application known as the Dawes Plan, have imposed exceptional burdens on Germany which can in no way be compared, as has sometimes been done, with the expenditure on reconstruction of any other party to the Treaty. Germany's burdens are far greater; above all, they do not profit the nation, but represent an economic loss for which there is no counterbalancing fresh supply. It is therefore not very clear why in other countries the opinion has sometimes been put forward that it is precisely Germany which should set the example in the matter

of ratifying the Washington Convention; while on the other hand it is easy to understand that in Germany itself there was, and still is, serious opposition to ratification, not only among employers, but far beyond their ranks. The opposition can be overcome only if there is a general conviction that although excessive hours may perhaps increase output temporarily, yet this is impossible in the long run without injuring the strength of the nation and therefore ultimately also the efficiency of industry.

On the whole, the 8-hour day is probably the best from the economic standpoint too. Yet it must be remembered that a reduction in hours in accordance with the Washington Convention will necessitate certain changes, especially where an undertaking working continuously has to change over from the two-shift to the three-shift system; and further, that such changes must obviously be felt more now than in a period of rising prosperity like that in Germany before the war. In spite of all this the German Government has repeatedly declared that in drafting the new Bill it will bear in mind the possibility of ratification, but any attempt to lengthen hours of work in the more important competing countries must of course make it much more difficult to maintain this standpoint. Recent instances are the adoption in Great Britain of the Act to increase the working day in mining, and in Italy of the Nine-Hour-Day Decree. The German Government has none the less kept to the views defined in the article by Dr. Brauns referred to above, according to which Germany will be prepared to ratify the Washington Convention if an agreement can be reached with the other States concerned on the difficulties of interpretation and on simultaneous ratification. Before the recent legislative measures taken by Great Britain and Italy, it seemed that the conditions so specified were very near realisation. The London Conference of Labour Ministers had satisfactorily settled various doubtful points of interpretation concerning the exceptions to the principle of the 8-hour day allowed in the Washington Convention. This was important for German legislation because, as will be clear from what has already been stated, Germany is no more able to do without a certain elasticity in the regulation of hours of work than is any other country that has introduced the 8-hour day.

The Extent of Revision

The course to be pursued by German legislation in the field of labour law is indicated in Article 157 of the new Federal Constitution, which states that : " Labour is under the special protection of the Reich. The Reich shall establish unified labour legislation. " For the purpose of carrying this declaration into effect a committee of prominent experts was appointed as far back as 1919 to draft a unified system of labour law. This Committee has done important and valuable work, though chiefly on the law relating to contracts of employment and collective agreements. Its work on labour protection law, on the other hand, was still only in the preliminary stage when it was compelled by force of circumstances to recast its activities, and to hold meetings only of the smaller sub-committee, as occasion arose. It was also found that a Labour Code cannot be created at a single blow. Besides the difficulty and tediousness of parliamentary procedure, there was also the fact that special laws had to be passed to meet urgent individual needs. The only possible method was therefore to draft separate measures for each of the more important branches of labour law, which should subsequently form separate parts of the Labour Code, and to submit these to the legislature. In this way, after two important matters had already been dealt with in detail by separate Acts — the Works Councils Act and the Employment Exchanges Act — the Conciliation Order was issued, followed by the Labour Courts Act which has just been passed by the Reichstag, and now by the Labour Protection Bill, which was submitted to the Provisional Federal Economic Council and to the Federal Council on 1 December 1926.

The very title of this Bill shows that is is intended to cover the whole field of the protection of labour and not only the question of hours of work. The reasons were set out by Dr. Brauns in the *Gewerkschaftszeitung* for 10 October 1925. According to his account of the origin of the Bill, the first intention was to follow the French example in regard to hours of work and to enact only a short covering Act, leaving all the necessary administrative regulations to be dealt with in Orders for individual industries. It was found, however, that this method would be too slow. If the revised law were to provide a basis for ratifying the Washington Convention, the Orders for all branches of industry would have to come into force simultaneously, a result which could not

possibly be achieved at short notice, considering, for instance, that in France all the administrative regulations under the Hours Act of April 1919 have not yet been issued. It was therefore decided to include all the more important provisions in the Act, and to allow the procedure of special Orders only for conditions needing separate treatment. The work on the Bill further brought out the need not only of regulating the hours of work of adult workers, but also of including the special regulations restricting the hours or prohibiting the employment of women, young persons, and children; of defining the precise relationship between the hours of work provisions and the Sunday rest regulations, and therefore of including the latter; and finally, of including in the same Act the measures on the closing hours of shops and industrial undertakings intended to secure the enforcement of the regulations on hours of work and Sunday rest. As there were already in force certain regulations, dating back to before the war, affecting the hours of work of adult males, their object being the promotion of safety (the maximum working day in unhealthy undertakings), it followed that the safety regulations had also to be revised. All this led quite naturally to the scheme for a complete Labour Protection Act, which should co-ordinate in a single text the various measures on labour protection which are at present scattered in numerous Acts and Orders, and so abolish the many obscurities arising out of the existence of these Acts side by side.

The term "labour protection" (*Arbeitsschutz*) — the term formerly used was generally "workers' protection" (*Arbeiterschutz*) — is taken to cover the whole body of legislation which in the public interest imposes obligations on the employer in relation to his workers, the fulfilment of these being secured by the means established by public law: labour inspection, compulsion, and penalties. Labour protection is subdivided into (*a*) industrial protection or safety, i.e. the regulation of the manner in which workers may be employed; (*b*) the protection of hours of work, i.e. the regulation of the hours in which an occupation may be pursued or not; and (*c*) the protection of contracts, i.e. the regulation of the obligations of the employer under public law with respect to the contract of employment[1]. The Labour Protection Bill does not deal with this last group of regulations; the provisions in question are in fact so closely related to the law of contract that for reasons of expediency they are better dealt with in that

[1] Cf. KASKEL.

connection, and they were accordingly included in the Bill on contracts of employment drafted by the Committee for the unification of labour law. The whole body of measures in the first two subdivisions of labour protection, on the contrary, is included in the Bill, with two limitations. In the first place, the special domain of the protection of home workers is excluded. The regulation of the conditions of home work requires such special measures that the general provisions on labour protection are almost inapplicable. For this reasons pecial regulations have been in force in Germany since 1911 in the form of the Home Workers' Act, which was considerably extended in 1923 by the introduction of the principle of minimum wage rates. This most important feature of the protection of home workers, however, forms part of the protection of contracts, which, as already explained, is to be kept separate from the Labour Protection Act. Secondly, the Labour Protection Bill in principle contains the law only so far as it applies to all workers, although on certain points exceptions may be necessary for salaried employees or specified categories of these employees; it does not contain special regulations for separate occupational groups. According as their conditions call for wholly or only partly separate regulations, special occupations are either wholly or partly excluded from the scope of the Labour Protection Bill. The chief total exclusions are those of domestic service, agriculture, and shipping; mining is partially excluded, a special Mining Act being in preparation.

Fundamental Principles of the Bill

The new Labour Protection Bill is obviously based on existing German law, which it endeavours to co-ordinate, unify, and improve. In particular, improvement of the regulations on hours of work was essential. The Hours of Work Order was issued as a transitional measure in conditions of emergency and allowed very far-reaching facilities for exceptions; this character of the Order had to be modified. Above all, the regulations in their final form could not continue to allow the unlimited right to extend hours by collective agreement. Labour protection is the last subject to be made a pawn in negotiations between the parties to collective agreements, because then the measure of protection is determined by the relative power of the parties at a given moment. On the other hand, in cases in which it must be recognised that

exceptions from the law are necessary, these exceptions must not be made conditional on the success of negotiations between the parties. That this has not led to greater inconvenience in Germany is probably due to the fact that an award of the statutory conciliation authorities which has been declared binding has the same force as a collective agreement. It is thus always open to a party which fails to obtain the conclusion of an agreement to appeal to the conciliation authorities, and so to arrive at a "compulsory agreement" that will take the economic necessities into account.

Further, some limit had to be placed on the far-reaching powers of the authorities with respect to the granting of exceptions, and in particular on a certain provision of the Hours of Work Order which can be explained only by the particular circumstances of 1923. According to this provision an employer is not liable to a penalty for permitting or accepting "voluntary overtime", provided that such overtime is due to special circumstances and is of a temporary nature, is not worked as a result of the employer's exploitation of the difficulties or inexperience of the worker, and does not obviously involve danger to health. In practice this provision, which obviously removes the liability to penalty in many cases of contravention, and so prejudices the observance of the Order, has recently led to abuses in the form of an increase in overtime. For this reason, when the Labour Protection Bill was submitted to the Federal Economic Council and the Federal Council, the trade unions, and after them the political parties, were led to consider whether the existing Order ought not at once to be amended on this and certain other points.

As regards the unification of labour protection measures, the chief thing to be done was to restore the right relationship between the protection of women and young persons and that of adult male workers, the introduction of the 8-hour day having made the difference between the two very small. Further, the difference in the degree of labour protection based on the size of the undertaking had to be set aside, and the relations between the general provisions on hours of work and the Sunday rest regulations had to be more clearly defined.

In general, the end in view in the drafting of the Bill was to make the greatest possible protection of the workers compatible with the unquestioned requirements of industry. These requirements being very strongly influenced by the conditions of international competition, it follows that there was a general desire to adapt

German legislation wherever possible to international agreements relating to labour protection. The Bill is therefore intended to make it possible to ratify various Conventions, in particular that on the 8-hour day. In fact, the readiness of Germany, in principle, to ratify under certain conditions was declared by the Government as early as September 1924, a declaration to which subsequent Governments have repeatedly referred. In the German view, however, ratification is impossible until German legislation has been brought into agreement with the Convention to be ratified. This means that the Labour Protection Act must be passed by the Reichstag, and also that no amendments can be allowed which make ratification impossible. The ratification of the Hours of Work Convention is further dependent on the adoption of a Mining Act to regulate the hours of underground miners, which is now being drafted. After that, ratification by Germany may be expected, subject to ratification by the other chief industrial States as well.

Contents of the Bill

The Bill is divided into seven parts. The first contains provisions on its field of application, the definition of the term "worker", and the persons responsible for the administration of protective regulations. The second part deals with industrial safety. The third, and most important, contains the provisions on hours of work; it is further subdivided into four, the first subdivision containing the general provisions, the second those on increased protection for women and young workers, the third those on the prohibition of night work in bakeries, and the fourth the administrative provisions. The fourth part deals with Sunday rest, the fifth with the closing hours of shops, the sixth with labour inspection, and the seventh with the enforcement of the Act, in particular the powers of the authorities, the date at which it comes into force and expires, and the effects on existing law. The Bill contains all the more important legal principles, but delegates the power to issue administrative regulations on individual points to the Federal Minister of Labour, and sometimes to other central Federal or State authorities. An important group of such regulations are those intended to define more closely some of the terms contained in the Act; for instance, agriculture, higher salaried employees, officials. In making these definitions the Federal Minister of Labour is to consult a permanent committee, the Federal

Committee for Labour Protection, which will consist of four representatives ot the Federal States, appointed by the Federal Council, and four employers and four workers, appointed by the Federal Economic Council. For the other administrative regulations the Federal Council will as a rule be consulted, and in all more important cases the employers' and workers' organisations must previously be heard.

Industrial Safety

The second part of the Bill lays down principles concerning the employer's duty in the matter of protecting the worker against industrial risks, similar to the provisions contained in the legislation of most countries. The employer must equip his undertaking and organise the work in such a way that the workers are protected against risks to life, health, and morals, in so far as the nature of the undertaking allows, and if he employs young persons and women he must take further special measures for their protection.

In pursuance of the general principles laid down for safety and hygiene the Federal Minister of Labour may issue Orders defining the conditions to be fulfilled by specified types of undertaking. More than twenty such Orders are already in existence, and they will continue to form one of the most important sources of labour protection. In individual cases, the safety provisions are to be enforced in accordance with instructions issued by the labour inspection authorities, either under the Act itself or under the proposed Orders. Penalties may be imposed for failure to observe the regulations. In case of serious danger to the workers, observance may be enforced by closing down the undertaking, or, if the continuation of the work is essential in the public interest, the necessary measures may be carried out by the authorities at the expense of the employer. As these regulations may involve the taking of measures which may prove costly or interfere with the working of the undertaking, provision is made for appeal procedure for the employer.

An innovation of considerable importance relates to the so-called protection of machinery. The Federal Minister of Labour may prescribe that certain forms of machinery and equipment may not be traded in or used unless they satisfy the conditions he has laid down for the protection of life and health. The scope of these measures may be restricted to home trade. In Germany, the obligation imposed on manufacturers of machines not to sell

them without proper safety appliances has hitherto been based only on voluntary agreements in the engineering industry. If only on account of its greater flexibility, the method of agreements will still be preferred, but the Federal Minister of Labour's power to issue Orders provides a means of bringing a certain pressure to bear for the conclusion of such agreements. It is to be hoped that reciprocal international arrangements will be made for extending these provisions to foreign trade.

Hours of Work

The most important part of the Bill is that dealing with hours of work. It begins by postulating the principle of the 8-hour day and the 48-hour week, and applies this maximum not only to employment in the undertaking itself, but also to work given out for performance at home, and to the aggregate hours of work done for all the employers by whom a worker may be employed. It is obvious that the principle of the 8-hour day demands a number of exceptions, such as are found not merely in the Washington Convention, but also in the legislation of all countries which have adopted the principle. In the German Bill the intention is to limit these exceptions as closely as possible, so that although at first sight it may seem as if the principle had been much undermined, yet the careful definition of the exceptions is in fact intended to prevent the unnecessary contraventions that might occur if the wording of these provisions were too general.

A fundamental exception to the 48-hour week in the Bill, as in the Washington Convention, is that a 56-hour week, including Sundays, is allowed for work involving continuous processes. The other exceptions may be placed in two groups: those allowing a different distribution of the hours of work, while maintaining an average working week of 48 hours, and those in which an actual extension of hours is allowed.

For the unequal distribution of hours of work seven different cases are distinguished, so as to take advantage of the various exceptions allowed by Articles 2 (*b*), 2 (*c*), and 5 of the Washington Convention. The cases are as follows:

(1) Redistribution of hours within the week to make up for shorter hours on one working day, usually Saturday;

(2) Concentration of all the hours on five working days;

(3) Work in several shifts, in which case the maintenance of the average hours over a period of three weeks is sufficient;

(4) Unequal distribution of hours, owing to the particular nature of the undertaking or the work, over a period of 90 days;

(5) Compensation for hours lost owing to local (not statutory) holidays, but such hours to be made up within a short period;

(6) Compensation for hours lost owing to special circumstances in the undertaking or a department of the undertaking, such circumstances being taken to mean serious stoppages such as those caused by fire, but possibly also those due to labour disputes, and the hours to be made up within a somewhat longer period;

(7) Unequal distribution of hours of work throughout the year for seasonal industries.

In all cases the daily and weekly extension of hours is limited, the usual maxima being 2 hours a day and 12 hours a week. Moreover, the extension must be based on an agreement, as a rule a general agreement (collective or works agreement), and only in exceptional cases on an individual contract of employment. In most cases the agreement also requires official sanction.

The Bill makes provision for four important cases of actual extension of hours of work. This is allowed (*a*) for preparatory or complementary work, (*b*) for essentially intermittent work or work consisting largely of periods of mere presence on duty (*Arbeitsbereitschaft*), (*c*) for overtime in cases of urgent necessity, and (*d*) in cases of emergency. These are the cases in which extension of hours of work is allowed by Articles 6 (*a*), 6 (*b*), and 3 of the Washington Convention.

The provisions relating to preparatory and complementary work refer as a rule to work performed not by the whole staff of the undertaking, but only by individual workers. The prolongation is limited sometimes to two hours, sometimes to one hour, and in one case — that of serving the last customers before closing the shop — to 20 minutes.

The cases of intermittent work, too, relate mostly to individual workers or very small groups of workers. In general, the Bill adopts the view that hours of work are to include not only the period of actual work, but the whole time during which the worker is at the employer's disposal. Somewhat different regulations, however, are, necessary for workers whose work is lightened by frequent and considerable interruptions; this distinction is also recognised in the Washington Convention. During the interruptions considered the worker is either not occupied at all, or has only to carry out certain minor duties of standing by and watching. It is impossible for the law to specify in advance all the cases in

which such intermittent work may occur ; the Bill therefore merely enumerates certain more frequent cases, especially such occupations as are found in different branches of industry, and empowers the Federal Minister of Labour to define other similar cases by Order. The provisions so far cover fire-brigade and first-aid staff, persons employed in restaurants and cloak rooms, etc., if their employment is merely subsidiary in an undertaking working for other purposes — for instance, the members of a factory fire brigade are covered, but not those of a municipal fire brigade. For machine minders a distinction is made according as the machinery is used directly in the production of goods or not. It is assumed that a man who works at a manufacturing machine is fully occupied, whereas minding a power machine does not usually require continuous and close attention. But even here the provisions on intermittent work apply only if this condition is actually fulfilled in the individual case. Finally, the provisions apply to watchmen, porters, messengers, and the drivers of motor and other vehicles and their mates. The hours of all these workers may be extended to 10 a day and 60 a week, but the spread (working hours including breaks) must not exceed 12 hours a day. This latter provision does not however apply to the drivers of motor and other vehicles and their mates, for whom a minimum rest period of 8 consecutive hours is fixed instead.

The permission to work overtime in cases of urgent necessity may be granted in one of four different ways. The Bill itself allows overtime up to 60 hours a year. A further 240 hours may be allowed by collective agreement. In the absence of any regulations to this effect in collective agreements, the authorities — as a rule the labour inspection authorities — can also authorise up to 240 hours of overtime, but only if this is required in the public interest, and with the condition that the authorisation may be withdrawn and is made only for a specified period. Finally, under certain special conditions the Federal Minister of Labour may authorise a further extension of overtime, if this is already authorised by collective agreement, but only for a specified period and for individual branches of industry in which it is required in the public interest. Overtime may not exceed 2 hours a day and 12 hours a week. For loading and unloading ships and connected work in seaports, however, overtime of up to 3 hours a day may be allowed, with a yearly maximum to be fixed by the Federal Minister of Labour. In all cases of overtime for manual workers payment at a suitable extra rate is strictly enjoined. In

the absence of agreement to the contrary, an increase of 25 per cent., as provided in Article 6 of the Washington Convention, is considered suitable.

Finally, provision is made for the extension of hours of work in cases of emergency and in exceptional cases, of which a series of examples is given. These include work to be done on machinery or plant which cannot be postponed, the completion of processes whose interruption would endanger the result, and work for preventing the deterioration of raw materials or foodstuffs.

Protection of Women, Young Persons, and Children

The second subdivision of the third part of the Bill deals with the reinforced protection of women and young workers. Here it was possible on the whole to base the provisions on existing measures, which were, however, unified and extended in various respects. In particular, the protective regulations, which formerly mainly covered wage earners, are to be extended to salaried employees. Further, the age limit for the protection of young persons is raised from 16 to 18 years, and in the provisions on the protection of children the employer's own children are treated more like the other children he employs than formerly. Finally, the protection of motherhood is to be much improved. All these regulations will be in complete, or almost complete, agreement with the international Conventions on the employment of women, young persons, and children, so that after the Bill has been passed it should be possible to ratify the Conventions on the employment of women before and after childbirth, the employment of women during the night, and the minimum age for the admission of children to industrial employment. For the present it will not be possible to ratify the Convention on the night work of young persons, because, although the Bill agrees with this Convention in other respects, it still permits the night work of boys between 14 and 16 years of age in two special cases (in glass works and in iron and steel rolling mills and forges), so as not to endanger the future supply of skilled labour.

In Germany, night work is already prohibited for women and for young persons up to 16 years of age. This prohibition is now extended to youths between 16 and 18 years of age, and to all salaried employees under 18, but not to salaried women employees over 18, as they themselves have no wish for this. The night is

reckoned from 8 p.m. to 6 a.m., but where the work is performed in shifts, the period of prohibition for workers over 16 years of age may be limited to the hours between 10 p.m. and 5 a.m., provided that a rest period of not less than 15 hours is allowed. Where work is continuous the Federal Minister of Labour may under certain conditions authorise exceptions for males over 16 years of age, and in food trades for women over 18. The corresponding exception for boys between 14 and 16 in two specific industries has already been mentioned.

Women and young workers are to have an uninterrupted rest period of not less than 11 hours, and women must be given a free afternoon on Saturdays and the days before holidays. Further, certain minimum breaks must be given to young workers and women. In certain occupations, especially those in commerce, hotels and restaurants, and theatres, the provisions in question apply only with limitations.

As compared with the existing law the protection of motherhood is substantially extended, on the lines laid down in the Washington Convention. A woman worker who can produce a medical certificate stating that her confinement will probably take place within six weeks, may leave her work. She may not be employed during the six weeks following confinement, and she may remain away from work for a further six weeks on the production of a medical certificate. During this period she is entitled to the maternity benefit payable under the sickness insurance system as provided by the Federal Insurance Code. Expectant and nursing mothers are under no obligation to work overtime. A woman nursing her child is to be allowed half-an-hour twice a day or an hour once a day during her working hours for this purpose. Notice of dismissal by the employer cannot take effect during the period of six weeks before and six weeks after confinement and any additional period when work is impossible.

As already observed, the protection of children too has been extended beyond the existing law, in particular by the inclusion of all family undertakings. Here, indeed, the protection need not go so far as in other undertakings, and as a rule children over 12 may be employed, whereas in other small undertakings they may be employed only in delivering goods and on other errands. Otherwise the prohibition of the employment of children up to the age of 14 years is general. Exceptions, for which official authorisation is needed, are allowed in the case of musical and theatrical performances, cinematograph productions, etc., if

necessary for artistic or scientific purposes or for purposes of vocational training, provided that there is no risk of injury to the child.

Prohibition of Night Work in Bakeries

As in the existing law, special regulations are laid down for the making of bread, pastry, etc., in agreement with the requirements of the Geneva Convention. Such work is prohibited at night, i.e. as a rule between 9 p.m. and 5 a.m. If the work is performed in two shifts, the period during which work is forbidden may be reduced by not more than one hour, so that 17 hours are available for organising the work, including breaks and preparatory processes, in two shifts. This regulation too is consistent with the Geneva Convention on the prohibition of night work in bakeries.

Sunday Rest

The provisions on Sunday rest in Germany are already stricter than in most other countries. On the whole the Bill maintains the existing conditions, but enlarges the scope of the provisions, and in particular defines clearly the connection between admissible Sunday work and the working week. In principle work on Sundays and statutory holidays is prohibited. The rest period must last 24 hours in undertakings which work continuously except on Sundays. A number of important exceptions to the principle of prohibition must obviously be allowed, as otherwise, owing to the complicated structure of the economic system, the population would scarcely be able to live, much less to use its Sunday rest for purposes of recreation. The Act must therefore completely exclude a number of industries from the provisions on Sunday rest. Among the industries so excluded are transport undertakings, hotels and restaurants, musical and theatrical undertakings, and undertakings where work must be carried on continuously so far as the processes in question are concerned. Certain kinds of work must also be excluded, in particular watchmen's and similar work, preparatory and complementary processes, and emergency work. In a further group of occupations work may be authorised by an Order, or in an individual case by an official permit. This provision covers the cases in which special local and industrial needs must be taken into account, such as work in the so-called essential trades, i.e. trades which supply goods

or services needed daily, or particularly on Sundays and holidays, such as dairies, hairdressers' establishments, forwarding agencies, seasonal trades, wind and water power undertakings, certain kinds of shops, and bakeries and pastry-cooks' undertakings. For the last two groups special regulations are laid down, but in general permission to work on Sundays is conditional on its being absolutely necessary. Overtime may be allowed if it is urgently necessary and if the undertaking would seriously suffer without the Sunday work; for this exception there is no restriction to specific trades.

The regulations relating to shops are of particular importance. In the law as it at present stands there are substantial differences in the way this subject is treated by the various Federal States, so that greater precision in the regulations is necessary. In future the Sunday employment of workers in shops may be authorised by the State authorities only in three specified cases:

(1) In certain kinds of shops, to be defined by the Federal Minister of Labour, which are engaged wholly or mainly in selling goods for the satisfaction of the daily needs of the population or of needs which are particularly marked on Sundays.

(2) In communes with a population of not more than 5,000, on at most twenty-six Sundays in the year, for shops of all kinds, if the supplies of the rural population depend on such Sunday trade because of the distances at which people live and the difficulties of communications, rules concerning these conditions being laid down by the Federal Minister of Labour.

(3) On not more than six Sundays or holidays in the year, if special circumstances demand that more business should be done.

In the third case, which is intended chiefly to provide for extra business before the more important holidays, shops may be kept open for not more than 6 hours, and in the other two cases as a rule for only 2 hours.

In bakeries and pastry-cooks' undertakings Sunday work is in general prohibited. The making of perishable pastry and the performance of necessary preliminary work are allowed, to a very limited extent, besides work in cases of emergency. Further exceptions may be allowed under certain conditions for not more than six Sundays or holidays in the year.

With very few exceptions Sunday work its altogether prohibited for young persons under 16 years of age. Workers employed on permissible Sunday work must be allowed a compensatory rest period during the week; in addition they must have a specified

minimum number of Sundays in the year free from work. The co-ordination of the regulations on Sunday work and on the working week is of importance. Under the present law permissible Sunday work is usually counted in the working week ; this is also the standpoint of the Washington Eight-Hour Day Convention, as was agreed at the London Conference of Labour Ministers. Nevertheless, this view was not unconditionally adopted in the Labour Protection Bill, which tends rather to vary the regulations according to the purpose and extent of the Sunday work allowed in individual cases. Thus for continuous processes the working week including Sunday work is limited to 56 hours, and work done in making perishable pastry is all to be included in the working week. In some other cases, for instance those of so-called essential trades and shops, an extension of the working week by not more than 2 hours is allowed, any additional Sunday work being counted in the working week. In cases where full work on Sundays too is necessary, as in the transport industry and in hotels and restaurants, the regulations are similar to those for continuous processes and an extension of the working week by a full day shift is allowed. Finally, in some cases the method of reckoning Sunday work is to be determined by the authority granting the permission. As a rule the length of actual Sunday work is limited to a few hours. In the absence of special provisions, the general regulations on hours of work apply.

Closing of Undertakings and Shops

In order to secure the enforcement of the regulations on hours of work and Sunday rest it is necessary in a number of cases not merely to forbid the employer to employ workers, but also to limit the activities of persons carrying on a business independently. Such regulations are still foreign to the law of certain countries, as appeared from the discussions of the International Labour Conference on the prohibition of night work in bakeries, and from the consultation of the Permanent International Court of Justice on the prohibition of the work of employers themselves contained in the international Convention. In German law, on the contrary, regulations of the kind were already in existence, for without them many protective measures cannot be enforced at all, and in addition those undertakings where no workers are employed, or where the employer can manage temporarily without workers, can compete

unfairly with other undertakings. The Labour Protection Bill follows the existing law when it recognises three kinds of regulation.

In the first place, the State authorities can issue instructions that in essential trades industrial work may be performed on Sundays and holidays only to the extent that the employment of workers would be permitted. Such instructions must in fact be issued if a demand to that effect is made by those concerned.

These regulations on the closing of undertakings are not so important as those on the closing of shops, which are dealt with in a separate part of the Bill. Shops may be kept open for ordinary business between 7 a.m. and 7 p.m. only. The State authorities are empowered to make certain exceptions for shops trading in foodstuffs, which may open earlier, and for all kinds of shops in rural communes, which may keep open later. On the other hand, closing at 6 p.m. may be introduced, provided that the shops concerned have put forward a demand to this effect. On Sundays shops may be open only for as long as the employment of workers would be permissible. Corresponding provisions apply also to the closing of hairdressers' establishments, but different regulations are laid down for chemists' shops, which must take it in turns to close on Sundays during certain hours.

Labour Inspection

The Labour Protection Bill contains an innovation in the matter of labour inspection, the term which is to take the place of the former term "industrial inspection". The competence of the Federal Government, which has hitherto been very small, is somewhat extended, although the Federal States will still be responsible for labour inspection. In future, however, the Federal Minister of Labour will take decisions and lay down rules to secure the necessary uniformity in both the appointment of officials and their activities. In other respects the provisions on labour inspection are in complete agreement with those proposed by the Fifth Session of the International Labour Conference (Geneva, 1923); these in fact already coincided to a large extent with the existing provisions on German industrial inspection. The Bill lays down certain requirements which must be satisfied by inspectors, and in particular the heads of inspection offices. It provides that, when necessary, doctors and persons with the necessary practical experience — presumably workers are intended — and women are to

assist in inspection. Labour inspection is to cover the whole field of labour protection. The powers of the inspectorate remain, on the whole, unaltered. The most important is the right to visit undertakings, including bedrooms and dining rooms, etc. provided by the employer, at any time during hours of work, and outside hours of work if there is reason to believe that work is being carried on against the law. Both employers and workers are under obligation to supply information. The labour inspection officials have to draw up annual reports on their work.

Date of Operation

The last part of the Bill contains various provisions on its enforcement and the date on which it is to come into operation. This date will be fixed by the Reichstag according to the progress of the debate. It is provided that if the enforcement of the regulations on hours of work is likely seriously to imperil the economic position of an industry or an important part of an industry, the Federal Minister of Labour, or with his agreement the central State authorities, may postpone the enforcement of the provisions for a period of up to three years. Finally, the Bill contains a clause, corresponding to Article 14 of the Washington Convention, according to which the operation of the provisions of the Labour Protection Act and of Orders issued under it may be temporarily suspended by an Order of the Federal Government, either for the whole of the country or for parts thereof, in the event of war or other emergency endangering the national safety. In this connection the interpretation of Article 14 agreed on by the Conference of Labour Ministers in London will apply, according to which emergencies of the kind are taken to mean crises that affect the national economy to such an extent that they threaten the existence of the people.

As already stated, the Bill was submitted on 1 December 1926 to the Provisional Federal Economic Council, and also to the Federal Council; the former began its discussion on 14 December 1926. It is of course impossible to foretell how long the discussions in these advisory bodies and before the legislature will last. The proposed law is comprehensive and of great importance; it will interfere considerably with existing conditions and may also have far-reaching economic effects. The discussions in the three

bodies, Federal Economic Council, Federal Council, and Reichstag, may therefore be expected to take at least a year in all.

The German trade unions consider that this procedure is too slow a means of bringing new regulations into being. They have therefore proposed the introduction of an emergency Act to amend the Hours of Work Order at present in force, and the Reichstag parties are now engaged in examining whether this proposal should be carried out. It is also probable that, in accordance with a decision of the Reichstag, the Government will anticipate the maternity provisions of the Labour Protection Bill and introduce a special Bill, which shall at once bring the existing provisions into agreement with those of the Washington Convention on the protection of motherhood. It should be realised that the very fact of discussing such separate proposals may delay and hamper the decision on the main Labour Protection Bill. At all events, the next few months will witness a lively discussion on the question of labour protection in Germany, which will also be of importance for the progress of international labour protection.

Collective Bargaining in the United States of America

by

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The movement for collective agreements is a natural and almost inevitable outcome of the substitution of mass for individual production, and as such presents a problem of particular interest in the United States. Study of this problem from the legal standpoint is complicated by the almost total absence of legislation on the subject and the divergent attitudes of the various States. In the absence of a contract for a fixed term, the employer has absolute power to discharge and the employee to leave his work, and the specific performance of a contract for personal service cannot be enforced under existing law. Labour organisations are not legal entities, though some States have legislation providing for suits at law to which voluntary organisations are parties, and the Supreme Court has recently decided that such organisations can sue and be sued. The organisations themselves express a preference for determinations arrived at by the parties, an attitude which has restricted the volume and importance of court decisions and discouraged legislation on the subject. Recent tendencies, however, have made recourse to the courts more frequent and less undesirable, and there are indications that the enforcement of contracts not violating public policy will have the support of the courts. A growing sense of the responsibility of both parties to the contract, combined with respect for the rights of the consuming public, characterises recent judicial decisions, which are comprehensively surveyed and analysed in the following article.

A STUDY of collective bargaining in the United States of America from a legal standpoint is confronted with at least two initial difficulties : one, the paucity of legislation on the subject ; the other, the divergent and even conflicting attitudes of the courts of the various States. These reasons are of course to be considered in the light of the fact that each of the forty-eight States is competent to enact a law of its own, within the bounds set by its own and

the Federal Constitutions, and its courts are free to construe such statute, or the common law, without any obligation to conform to the rulings of the other jurisdictions ; though a decision by the Supreme Court of the United States would be highly influential, and even controlling in the field of construction of the Federal Constitution.

The Background

A collective agreement normally connotes a labour organisation. There is a very considerable amount of legislation relating to such organisations, or at least recognising their existence ; such as laws declaring the legality of labour organisations, protecting them in the proprietary use of the union label, union card, badge, or button, and giving them representation on boards for the arbitration of labour disputes. But none of these laws makes legal entities of such organisations, or bestows on them that status or capacity that is essential to the full exercise of power and responsibility in making contracts. Some States indeed have laws specifically directed to the incorporation of associations of workmen, and their incorporation would be feasible under the laws of any State ; but this privilege is rejected with practical unanimity, the organisations preferring almost without exception to remain unincorporated. The Federal Congress in 1886 enacted a law providing for the incorporation of national organisations, but the only use made of it has been by a very few and for the most part unimportant unions.

Incorporation would of itself result in the creation of a legal entity, with power to sue and be sued, and with legal and financial liability for corporate acts, to the extent of the corporate funds. Special legislation providing for suits at law to which voluntary associations are parties is found in some States ; and in the absence of such provision it has been held that suits may be brought against the members as individuals only, or action may be taken against one or more as representatives of all. The vagueness of this situation, and the lack of official, responsible representation, have afforded much difficulty in any consideration of the value and effectiveness of any agreement entered by or with such organisations ; but a recent decision by the Supreme Court may exert a far-reaching influence in this regard, especially in constructions by the Federal courts, the position being there taken that, considering the extent of recognition by statute, and the actual force, influence

and powers exerted, such organisations, even though not incorporated, are in fact such entities as to be capable of suing and being sued[1].

If such capacity be recognised, together with responsibility for the unlawful or injurious acts of members engaged in carrying out the policies of the union, one of the difficult phases of the problem of the nature and validity of collective agreements will be disposed of. However, it is not essential to the existence of collective agreements that they should be subject to interpretation and enforcement in a court of law, just as treaties between nations have value despite the absence of a forum in which they may be construed and their observance compelled. It is often an evident aim and purpose of labour agreements to provide for their own enforcement by a system of forfeits, bonds, or deposits, or by arbitration, or by both, so as to secure the ends of the ordinary judicial procedure without resort to the courts. In other words, the lack, or at least the incompleteness, of forensic capacity is regarded by the organisations as an advantage, and preference is openly expressed for determinations arrived at by the parties rather than by recourse to judicial or other tribunals[2]. The result of these considerations has necessarily been to restrict the volume and importance of the decisions of the courts on the subject, and also to discourage legislation thereon.

In this latter connection it is of interest to note that the two outstanding enactments providing for effective union representation and the establishment of collective agreements are the objects of vigorous and persistent attack by organised labour. These are the Act of Congress creating the United States Railroad Labour Board[3] and the Act of the Legislature of Kansas creating a court of industrial relations[4]. The former Act provides for representation of the unions, both on the Board and in proceedings before it; while the latter declares unions in the industries coming within

[1] United Mine Workers *v.* Coronado Coal Co. (1922), 259 U. S. 344, 42 Sup. Ct. 570.

[2] The President of the Glass Bottle Blowers' Association, speaking in 1920, reviewed the history of collective bargaining by that organisation for a period of some 35 or more years, and said: "In all the years of collective bargaining between the Glass Bottle Manufacturers' Association and the Glass Bottle Blowers' Organisation the contract has never been violated by either association; never has an arbitrator, mediator, or conciliator been called upon to settle any of the differences that have arisen from time to time, some of which were very serious."

[3] Act of 28 Feb. 1920, 41 Stat. 469; repealed by the Railway Labour Act of May 1926; see below, p. 206.

[4] Extra Session 1920, ch. 29.

its purview to be legal entities, with power to appear before the court of industrial relations by their proper officers, attorneys, or other representatives. While it would be too much to say that the fact of such recognition is the cause for the opposition of the unions, it is nevertheless true that it does not prevent or even modify such opposition. This attitude is explainable, in part at least, by the fact that both Acts suggest, if they do not actually embody, the principle of compulsory arbitration, which is definitely rejected by organised labour as well as judicially[1] ; while they also call for the intervention of a third party — a board or court — which is likewise held objectionable.

The movement for collective agreements is essentially revolutionary, but only as a natural and practically inevitable concomitant of the revolution effected by the substitution of mass for individual production, and of the delegated and indirect control of labour for the direct and collaborative system prevailing in the days of small shops and handicraft methods. The employer working with a small group of assistants, formulating his methods and working out his processes in immediate and constant contact with his men, was succeeded by the employer of hundreds and thousands, who sought to frame his rules and establish working conditions with an absolutism which developed with the failure to recognise the disappearance of these contacts. Just as the worker resisted the introduction of labour-saving machinery, even to the extent of breaking it up, so the employer has been unwilling to adopt the proposed methods, the purposes of which are to compensate for this loss of contact, and secure to the worker an opportunity for expression in regard to the question of employment conditions ; but when the employer has undertaken to combat the organisation of the worker, he has himself at times been compelled to recognise the ineffectiveness of pure individualism, and the necessity of an organisation of his own, in which he must concede something to the collective and co-operative aspects of the problem. In other words, he must delegate something of his personal authority, at the expense of his personal freedom, to the person or committee that undertakes on behalf of his group to formulate the plan, to be binding upon all, by which the difficulty confronting them is

[1] The Kansas statute was said by the Supreme Court to propose a system of compulsory arbitration, violative of personal and property rights, and interfering with the freedom of contract guaranteed by the Constitution of the United States, and therefore void. Chas. Wolff Packing Co. *v.* Court of Industrial Relations (1923), 262 U. S. 522, 43 Sup. Ct. 630.

to be solved. This may open the way for a new consideration of the demands of the organisation of workers that is the cause of his counter-organisation, with the possible consequence of a recognition of the benefits of an agreement therewith ; or he may choose as an alternative to offer to deal collectively with his own employees, through their representatives, in the formation of a shop or establishment agreement. But under either form, the change from the individual to the collective agreement is being made ; and " thus government by discussion enters into industry (as it did into the state) when the ruler can no longer arbitrarily force obedience to his laws, and must get the consent of those who are to obey the regulations "[1].

Naturally, shop agreements cannot vary widely from the practice of the competing establishments of the vicinity, and are as a result usually doubtful as to quality and precarious as to duration ; and this weakness has been so often demonstrated that such a " gift of the Greeks " is quite generally viewed with suspicion if not positively opposed. Obviously, it stands over against the idea of strong trade unions of general inclusiveness and corresponding effectiveness. Where, however, an establishment is large enough and the principle of employee representation is sufficiently developed, such an agreement may go far toward stabilising conditions and curing the inequalities of individual conditions that notoriously exist where organisation and a sense of community of interest among the employees are lacking[2].

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[1] W. M. Leiserson : " Constitutional Government in American Industries ", in *American Economic Review*, Supp., Vol. XII, March 1922.

[2] A striking illustration of this inequality has been disclosed in investigations of the wages of saleswomen in mercantile establishments, who are very imperfectly, if at all, organised. It was found to be a not unusual occurrence that women and girls entering employment should be cautioned not to tell others the rate of pay given the individual, the result being a wide and inexcusable diversity, due to the unrestrained individualistic mode of bargaining. The attempt to remedy this situation by the establishment of a minimum wage through governmental agencies, thus legislating a form of collective agreement, has been declared contrary to the principles of the Federal Constitution, so far as adult women are concerned, as an interference with the freedom of contract in matters of purely private concern, which is a guaranteed property right of all citizens (Adkins *v.* Children's Hospital (1923), 261 U. S. 525, 42 Sup. Ct. 394 ; Murphy *v.* Sardell (1925), 46 Sup. Ct. 22). Whether the very evident non-social tone of this opinion is an adverse indication as to the recognition of collective agreements voluntarily entered into is perhaps too theoretical to discuss profitably ; but of it, as of an earlier decision involving in part the same factors, it may be said that it was " decided upon an economic theory which a large part of the country does not entertain ". But whether or when a change will occur cannot be foreseen.

The Problem

The simplest conception of a collective agreement is that of a bargain entered into by an employer and his group of workmen ; but, as already pointed out, unless the employer occupies a sufficiently dominant position in his locality or his market, he may be placed at a fatal disadvantage in competing with those who do not conform to the standards agreed upon. This suggests the co-operation of a larger body of workers, to secure for themselves the stabilisation of the benefits provided for in the agreement by eliminating the undercutting process at the hands of nonconforming employers. If the workmen become sufficiently coherent and powerful, they may adopt standards which employers are constrained to accept as the price of obtaining the desired labour supply. In such a case there is legislation rather than bargaining, one side prescribing a rule which the other must obey. On the other hand, the employers may on their part unite also, with the result of a commerce between parties of such equal strength that the quality of the bargain is restored. It is obvious that, conditions permitting, either party may assume the attitude of legislator for the other, and either may break the cohesion that supports the bargaining power. If the groups entering into the agreements are extensive enough to dominate the field, whatever its boundaries, custom has been established as truly as if by statute or by those processes of long growth that shape the conditions of employment in industry under its familiar aspects[1].

Though collective agreements are far from new in the United States, some being found at least as early as the beginning of the last century, it is only comparatively recently that they have assumed their present-day importance. Just as the modern principle of compensation for injuries received in the course of employment made obsolete in a decade the older rule of " no liability without fault ", so the collective agreement proposes to re-align by conscious purpose and in specific terms the details of the employment

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[1] " No practicable form of contract, however elaborate, could be presumed to embody all the conditions and consequences that result from the consent of the parties, the one to render service, and the other to receive it and to pay compensation therefor. In other words, there is formed a status of the two parties, determined by long usage, the rulings of the courts in unnumbered cases, and many statutory enactments, the details of which are to be known by a consideration of the whole law of employment, and which no contract attempts to express. " L. D. Clark : *The Law of the Employment of Labour*, pp. 1, 2 ; New York, Macmillan, 1911.

contract, with a resultant setting aside of many of the older inferences and assumptions. Whether this change is to be effectuated on a theory of individual assent by the parties to a general formula proposed for their acceptance or rejection, or whether it is based on a theory of agency by which the parties are bound in advance to accept terms formulated by delegated representatives, or whether some other principle is held to underlie ; whether the agreement avails only for those who maintain relationship with one or the other of the organised groups party to it, or whether it embraces non-members as well, all are questions that come up for answer. And though the lack of an answer does not actually prevent the development and practical operation of the agreements within limits, answers are nevertheless desirable and necessary before the boundaries of definition and theory can be established and the significance of the collective agreement correctly evaluated.

The questions involved in the development of a system of such agreements are social and economic rather than legal — of the spirit rather than of the letter. There must clearly be an abandonment of the individualistic concept that places the employer and each separate workman on an assumed equality, with an alleged equal bargaining power, for a concept more in accord with actual conditions[1]. Under the American law, in the absence of a contract for a fixed term, the power of the employer to discharge " for any reason or no reason " is absolute ; and the employee may with equal irresponsibility leave his work[2]. The consequences to each, as individuals, are often contrasting rather than comparable, yet both parties alike insist on a retention of this precious " right ". The specific performance or actual carrying out of a contract for personal service, which the labour contract usually is, cannot be enforced, under the law. Its breach only entails liability for damages, and such damages must be shown to be actual before any recovery can be had. But a judgment for damages against a wage earner would, in many cases to say the least, be without value, while an employer, being an owner of property, can, as a rule, be reached by a judgment.

Can a different rule of law be established in the case of a contract between an employer or a group of employers and an organisation or its representatives standing for the labour supply in the industry

[1] " Wherever the economic conditions of the parties concerned are unequal, legal freedom of contract merely enables the superior in strategic strength to dictate the terms. " S. WEBB : *Industrial Democracy*, p. 217.

[2] Coppage *v.* Kansas (1915), 236 U. S. 1, 35 Sup. Ct. 240.

and locality concerned? Or can a system of forfeits, bonds, or arbitral provisions secure the fulfilment of such a contract ? Or, again, can an intelligent co-operative spirit be developed that will supplant the all-too-common hostility as to working conditions and the returns of invested capital and productive labour, and secure the adjustment of the one and the distribution of the other on terms arrived at by actual agreement between the parties in interest? Up to the present time, the collective agreement has too often been the treaty after the battle fought, and neither party has regarded it with the full measure of sacredness that it must have before it can be called a solvent of the question, instead of a sort of truce between conflicts. A much more thorough organisation or co-operation of employers on the one hand, and of workmen on the other, is essential to the adoption of the collective agreement ; and some responsibility on the part of the workers' organisations is a natural and just correlative to the employer's financial responsibility for his breach of a legitimate agreement. It cannot be anticipated that the law-making bodies of the country will at any early date enact laws to enforce the suggested changes, nor can the courts assess penalties not provided by the law ; but there are here and there indications that contracts not violating public policy, freely entered into by the parties, will receive such construction by the courts as to make it clear that they are to be observed by the parties making them, and are to be respected by others.

There is a tendency toward the centralisation of control by a federation of the workers and their unions, and consequently toward one-sided formulation of rules and terms, in which the power of the employer to make a bargain is lost in the face of dictated conditions. This is the converse evil to that whose remedy is sought — that of a compulsory acceptance of the terms of employment as fixed by the employer. Such a result is no solvent of the problem ; but only where the national organisation of each party is represented in conference is actual bargaining possible. Local problems may still be worked out in district or city conferences ; but if only such conferences take place to consider a schedule adopted by a convention of workers, there is little or no true bargaining. Illustrative of the case is the instance of a city organisation of employers who agreed with the local branch of a national union of workers to arbitrate differences ; but when a point was proposed for arbitration, the reply was that the matter was determined by a national rule which was not subject to arbitration.

National organisations of employers are of service, therefore,

both as furnishing co-ordinate parties to national agreements, and as counterpoises to the influence of national labour groups in the settlement of local difficulties. Naturally, the formation of strong organisations on both sides entails the possibility of conflict as well as of co-operation. The city of San Francisco has developed employers' associations that have made vigorous efforts to establish what they call the " American plan " of the non-union shop ; while certain mine fields are nationally known for their endeavour to maintain an anti-union " closed shop ". Of these it may be said, as of the violent and coercive " general strike ", that they are obstacles and enemies to any just and enduring solution of the problem of industrial peace.

It would hardly seem necessary to add, except that the point has been vigorously and repeatedly litigated, that no agreement can validly be forced upon an employer against his will[1] ; and a strike to that end will be enjoined[2]. Nor, on the other hand, can a union, by injunction or otherwise, be compelled to enter into any contract with an employer desiring the same[3].

If to the foregoing illustrative items be added the declaration of unending hostility put forth by the Industrial Workers of the World in the words : " The working class and the employing class have nothing in common "[4], the problem is clearly seen to be one of understanding, of correlations and adjustments, into which, in the first instance, legislatures and courts cannot enter ; but the goal having been in measure attained by the discussions, concessions, and conclusions of the parties, the results may be clarified and stabilised by legal expression and interpretation.

Practical Recognition and Development

The actual adoption and practical operation of collective agreements have not awaited either legislative authorisation,

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[1] O'Brien *v.* People (1905), 216 Ill. 354, 75 N. E. 108.

[2] United Shoe Machinery Corp. *v.* Fitzgerald (1921), 237 Mass. 537, 130 N. E., 86. " Whatever may be the advantages of collective bargaining, it is not bargaining at all, in any just sense, unless it is voluntary on both sides. The same liberty which enables men to form unions, and through them to enter into agreements with employers willing to agree, entitles other men to remain independent of the union, and other employers to agree with them to employ no man who owes any allegiance or obligation to the union. In the latter case, as in the former, the parties are entitled to be protected by law in the enjoyment of the benefits of any lawful agreement they make, " Hitchman Coal and Coke Co. *v.* Mitchell (1917), 245 U. S. 229, 38 Sup. Ct. 65.

[3] Saulsberry *v.* Coopers' International Union (1912), 147 Ky. 170, 143 S.W. 1018.

[4] Preamble to constitution. The second paragraph reads : " Between these

judicial recognition, or millennial peace. Furthermore, there has been a very significant amount of expression by bodies of an official and semi-official nature that suggests possibilities of an even wider change of attitude. Thus, the Anthracite Coal Commission appointed by President Roosevelt declared in 1903 that, if it were within the scope of its jurisdiction, the demand for collective bargaining and a trade agreement might reasonably be granted. The National War Labour Board, functioning during the war, recognised the right of workmen to make such agreements through their chosen representatives, and took ground against the discharge of employees on account of their membership in labour organisations ; while the report of the Director-General of Railroads, relating to the same period, stated that " the principle of collective bargaining was frankly recognised " ; and quite a number of years earlier, a Federal court directed a receiver of a railroad to make an " appropriate contract " with an organisation of railroad employees on the subject of the conditions of employment of its members[1].

Again, the Postmaster-General, in an order of 14 June 1919, declared that the employees of telephone companies should have the right to bargain as individuals, or collectively, through committees or representatives chosen by them to act for them. And in March 1924 the United States Railroad Labour Board, in its decision No. 2305, ruled that " the Transportation Act, 1920, in substance and effect, guarantees to every railway employee the right to participate in the selection of his representatives in the conferences, negotiations, and general procedure under the law " ; while the Congress of the United States, at the date of this writing, at the request of representatives of the railroad officials and their employees, has enacted into law a " Railway Labour Act ", which is an agreed plan for the adjustment of differences as to wages and working conditions, such plan being the product of full and free conference between representatives of the two groups, and urgently advocated by both — a conspicuous example of an attempt on the part of employers and workmen to secure statutory recognition of an agreement fostered by them in joint conference.

It is worthy of note that the ruling of the Railway Labour Board noted above was made in a contention involving the identical point on which the first industrial conference called by President

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two classes a struggle must go on until the workers of the world organise as a class, take possession of the earth and the machinery of production, and abolish the wage system. " BRISSENDEN : *The I.W.W.*, p. 351.

[1] Waterhouse *v.* Comer (1895), 55 Fed. 149.

Wilson in 1919 was wrecked. Employee and employer representatives, together with those of the public, professed full assent to the principle of collective bargaining, but while the representatives of the employees and the public took the position that the employees might choose their spokesmen either from their own numbers or from members of their unions, not workmen in the establishments affected, the employers insisted on a claimed right to refuse to deal with any but their own employees. Following the disruption of this conference, a second one was called, at which only representatives of the public were present, and which declared: " The conference is in favour of the policy of collective bargaining. ... It believes that the great body of the employers of the country accept this principle. The difference of opinion appears in regard to the method of representation. " In the plan proposed by this conference, unrestricted selection of representatives was provided for, with an arrangement to secure choice by a majority of the employees, " in order that they may be able to bind them in good faith ".

The attitude of the National Association of Manufacturers, an active organisation of quite considerable influence, and often classed as conservative in this field, is expressed in a declaration adopted in 1919, which may fairly be accepted as responsive to the above. It was said that " employees have the right to contract for their services in a collective capacity ", but that employment contracts must be formed " without interference or dictation on the part of individuals or organisations not directly parties to such contracts " ; nor may they stipulate " that employment should be denied to men not parties to the contract ". In other words, dealings are to be with employees only, and no provision for the closed shop is acceptable. In 1925, this association declared that " collective agreements should be the voluntary act of both parties ". which must be recognised as a valid statement, and renewed its statement in opposition to the closed shop. Inasmuch as a not infrequently recognised aim of the collective agreement is to secure to the parties thereto an exclusive enjoyment of the employment relations and industrial opportunities represented by them, it is obvious that there is a wide contrast between a full endorsement of the idea and the expressions above recorded.

As indicative of a growth of opinion in favour of the sharing of responsibilities for the conditions of employment, mention may be made of the quite considerable extension of the practice of employee representation in industrial management. This idea

appears also in a form of governmental recognition in a law of the State of New York providing for the appointment of an " Industrial Council " in the Department of Labour of the State. This Council represents employers and employees by equal numbers on its membership, and is to act in an advisory capacity to the State Industrial Commission in considering administrative and industrial questions. Quite similar is the method of adopting safety codes for specific classes of establishments that has found favour in a number of cases, i.e. the appointment of representative workmen to consult with representative employers and others in the formulation of rules and standards which, when approved by the constituted authorities, have the force and effect of law in respect of safety devices and equipment ; and so also the wage boards in the different industries provided for by the minimum wage laws of the various States, employers and employees, and usually the public, being represented thereon, and recommending a wage rate on the basis of their consideration of the cost of living and the conditions of the industry, which, when approved and promulgated, became the legal standard for that industry.

A degree of recognition of the workman's interest in the undertaking in connection with which he is employed is to be found in the pronouncement of certain judges to the effect that employees going on strike do not by that act absolutely cease to be employees. A sort of surviving status exists differentiating the striking employees from other workmen.

> The relationship is an anomalous one, yet distinctive, and of such nature as to secure to the parties certain correlative rights under which acts may be performed that would assume a different aspect if done by absolute strangers or in different circumstances[1].

This recognition extends to statutory enactments as well, the Federal law regulating the issue of injunctions in labour disputes[2] permitting employees on strike to peaceably advise and persuade others to join them or to abstain from working for the person against whom the strike exists, or to cease to patronise him. Such permission is held to be limited to those who are personally classifiable in some direct way as employees, and does not extend to

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[1] Iron Molders' Union *v.* Allis-Chalmers Co. (1908), 166 Fed. 45, 91 C.C.A. 631.

[2] 38 Statutes at Large, p. 730.

workmen as a class, or even to members of the same union who are " in no relation of employment, past, present, or prospective "[1].

While no great significance can be attached to such expressions, they are indications, among others, of a measure of recognition of the employee's " right to the job " that entitles him to a voice in the determination of employment conditions in one way or another. Taken all together, there is a body of official and quasi-official opinion come to expression that is suggestive of advance. The question naturally arises as to the extent of actual adoption of such agreements as have been considered. No statistics of an inclusive nature are in existence, though the State of Massachusetts has made local studies of considerable completeness. Reports of these were issued covering the years 1911 and 1916. It is regrettable that the work has not been continued to cover a second five-year period. In connection with these dates it is of interest to note that they come closely upon the pronouncement of a careful student of the subject, made in 1912, calling attention to the rapid extension of the system of collective bargaining during the fifteen years then just ending — a growth that has apparently continued without noticeable diminution.

In 1911, of 1,282 local trade unions in the State of Massachusetts, 1,226, with 185,414 members, answered the enquiries as to collective agreements ; and of this number 530 reported signed agreements with one or more employers, 42 others reporting verbal agreements. These two groups, comprising about 47 per cent. of the number of unions reporting, represented 61 per cent. of the membership. In other words, the more important unions had trade agreements, 259 reporting agreements signed with all firms within their jurisdiction. Five years later, 1,354 unions with 239,580 members reported ; and instead of 47 per cent. having agreements, 61 per cent., embracing 76 per cent. of the membership, reported them. Many of these were for fixed terms of years, while a large number were for indefinite periods, subject to termination on notice of from 30 to 90 days. Some reported as effective in 1916 had had initial formation as far back as 1886, 1889, 1897, 1900, etc.

In some industries, as coal mining, and, within narrower geographical bounds, the building trades, textile industries, clothing trades, and the boot and shoe industry, the system of collective bargaining has been for several years either dominant or largely influential. The last-named industry was one of the earliest to

[1] Duplex Printing Press Co. *v.* Deering (1921), 254 U.S. 443, 41 Sup. Ct. 172.

take steps toward the adoption of the system, such efforts dating from the late 'sixties and early 'seventies of the last century. A parallel history, and perhaps even antedating its commencement, might be written for the stove trade. Here, well-recognised organisations of workers and manufacturers have dealt with each other in representative fashion continuously since 1872, with local activities of a considerably earlier date. A State board of arbitration and conciliation in Massachusetts in 1886 marks a form of recognition of the collective system. Laws for similar agencies, either State or local, were enacted in twenty States within the next decade.

Important agreements covering a wide range of industries have been reproduced in the publications of the Bureau of Labour Statistics in the United States Department of Labour and its predecessors, from 1902 to the present date, though not continuously, and with no purpose of covering the field in detail. No census is therefore possible, nor do the reports usually disclose the extent of the acceptance of the agreement. Naturally, the greater number are between local unions and the employers or employers' associations of various cities, though these may be within the terms formulated by national bodies, and may be of influence quite beyond the groups actually party thereto. It is calculated that above 4,000 agreements have come to the attention of the Bureau within the years 1924 and 1925, while it is believed that the number of informal but accepted agreements is even larger than that of formal signed agreements, of which the above number is not, of course, offered as comprehensive of the total. Agreements are on file representing national organisations of bakers, barbers, brewery workers (including yeast, soft drinks, grain elevators, etc.), clothing trades, diamond workers, electrical workers, moving picture operators, painters, plumbers, pottery workers, printers, stove founders, window-glass blowers, and many others.

The United States Shipping Board has agreements with longshoremen's organisations at the principal ports, also with the seamen and officers on their vessels. The longshoremen of New York City also have an agreement with the lighter captains of that port, and the sailors of the Great Lakes with the Lumber Carriers' Association operating thereon. The employees of the railroads of the country are widely organised, and their employment conditions are very generally determined by collective agreements.

A publication of the American Federation of Labour, 1925, entitled *Wage Negotiations and Practices*, gives an account of

agreements of various ranges — national, regional, local under central supervision, and local — embracing many thousands of workers in some 70 odd categories.

It is evident that the foregoing statements lack exactness as to scope and the number of persons affected, and they are offered only as suggestive of the variety and extent of the recognition of the principles under consideration. Local agreements are reported in a number of places recognised as primary centres for the industries named. Such an agreement in the shoe industry, for instance, affected 15,000 workers, a longshoremen's 2,200, the railroad organisations have a field of approximately 2,000,000 workers, etc.

Not in itself capable of being party to collective agreements, but furnishing basis and direction for them, is the National Board for Jurisdictional Awards in the Building Industry. This board was organised on a plan adopted in 1919, at the annual convention of the Building Trades Department of the American Federation of Labour, for the purpose of providing means for the settlement of disputes as to jurisdiction among the seventeen unions affiliated with this Department. The Board is, therefore, a sort of arbitrator, to settle disputes not as to collective agreements, but as to the claims of rival groups in the building industry. Associated with these workers' representatives are members of architects', engineers', contractors' and other national associations, representing every aspect of the industry. One of these, the American Engineering Council, at its meeting in January 1915, after hearing reports of its activities, voted continuing participation therein, as beneficial to labour, the contractor, the building owner, and to the public as well.

Construction and Enforcement

The statement has already been made that the expressed preference of the parties to collective agreements is for construction by persons of their own selection and enforcement by sanctions of their own choosing. Happily, choice rather than compulsion is the more common factor in securing observance ; or if discipline is required, it is more frequently supplied from within. A recent illustration is the suspension in the winter of 1924-1925 of the charters of a considerable group of unions of anthracite miners in Pennsylvania for refusal to conform to the terms of an agreement entered into by the United Mine Workers in behalf of the coal field. Similar action in other coal fields was taken in 1919, 1921, and 1923.

Another significant event was the exclusion of the Carpenters' Union, a powerful organisation, from the American Federation of Labour in 1921, on account of its rejection of the decisions of the National Board for Jurisdictional Awards in the Building Industry as to their claims in regard to setting metal doors and sashes. And the four great Railway Brotherhoods in 1920 said : " We insist that the members of these Brotherhoods do everything in their power to preserve their existing contracts. The laws of these organisations provide penalties for members engaging in illegal strikes, and these penalties will be enforced. " Other cases of the kind might be cited, but these will suffice.

An agreement may provide for joint conferences for dealing directly to adjust questions in dispute, with an impartial arbitrator to care for cases found incapable of settlement by this method. The direct conference naturally tends to result in decisions reflecting the relative strength of the parties. This may also influence the decisions of the arbitrator to some extent, but he is at least in a position to develop a line of precedents, and to seek to establish certain principles expressive of his ideas of the justice of the case.

The choice of recourse to such methods rather than to the courts naturally tends to the development of an extra-legal, or perhaps rather extra-judicial, body of precedents and rules of procedure. But recent tendencies and events have had the effect of making recourse to the courts not an unknown or entirely undesirable occurrence. It cannot be said now, at least in the inclusive sense in which the statement seems to have been made some years ago, that " the provisions of our joint contracts cannot be enforced in the courts ; labour organisations can neither sue nor be sued "[1]. Doubtless, incidental provisions of such agreements are not enforceable by action of the courts ; indeed, no contract for personal services is. But the general and fundamental elements of such agreements have received judicial construction and application to a sufficient extent at least to qualify in a considerable degree the statement quoted above.

Nor can such agreements and the conduct of the parties in carrying them out escape court supervision in circumstances warranting intervention by reason of their effect on the legal rights of the persons affected, whether parties thereto or third persons. A very recent case may be used to illustrate this principle, in which

[1] Address of John MITCHELL, President of the United Mine Workers of America, Convention of 1902.

a locomotive engineer, party to a collective agreement, incurred the displeasure of his union, which thereupon sought to eliminate him from the protection of the contract. An arbitrator's award construing the agreement in his favour was ignored, and for the resultant loss of employment he was said by the court to have a right to damages, since the award had effected a determination that was controlling, having been rendered in accordance with the exact provisions of the agreement[1]. A purely judicial determination, i.e. without the intervention of an arbitrator, was made in a very similar case by the highest court of the State of Kentucky, which also made an interesting appraisal of the union as party to a contract[2]. It was here said to be the primary purpose of labour organisations to secure to their members a fair and just remuneration for their labour, and favourable working conditions. The right or privilege secured by their agreements was said to become " the individual right of the individual member, and such organisation can no more, by its arbitrary act, deprive that individual member of his right so secured than can any other person ". It followed that a workman entitled to seniority rights under the agreement could not be deprived of them by an act of the union that would contravene such agreement, the court thus intervening to secure to the individual the benefits of a contract made for him by perhaps the very officials who were now attempting to bar him from its benefits.

It has long been established that, " whatever the parties may do if no one but themselves is concerned ", a collective agreement cannot be pleaded in extenuation of injuries to third persons, committed with the alleged purpose of carrying it out[3]. On the other hand, where an employer has broken his agreement with a union, it has at least a legal right to inform its members of his action, and an ensuing strike is justifiable[4]. In other words, an employer cannot disregard his contract with impunity, any more than the union can claim its protection for unlawful ends.

As to the status and liabilities of labour organisations, it has been determined that, even though not incorporated, they are subject to injunction[5]; their funds and the property of their members can be levied on for the recovery of damages resulting from

[1] Order of Railway Conductors *v.* Jones (Colo. 1925), 239 Pac. 882.

[2] Piercy *v.* Louisville and N. Ry. Co. (1923), 198 Ky. 477 ; 248 S.W. 1042.

[3] Berry *v.* Donovan (1905), 188 Mass. 353, 74 N.E. 603 ; Curran *v.* Galen (1897), 152 N.Y. 33, 46 N.E. 297.

[4] Greenfield *v.* Central Labour Council (1920), 104 Oreg. 236, 192 Pac. 783 ; Segenfeld *v.* Friedman (1922), 193 N.Y. Supp. 128.

[5] *In re* Debs (1895), 158 U.S. 564, 15 Sup. Ct. 900.

their unlawful acts[1]; and in general, they are subject to the same processes in law and equity as are other legal entities, at least so far as the Federal courts are concerned[2]. It is correlatively true that the courts are open for the redress of their grievances, and that they can initiate proceedings and bring actions in law and in equity, through proper representation[3].

The question remains: when the courts do take cognisance of the existence and terms of a collective agreement submitted for their consideration, how is it to be construed? Two principal positions have been taken, the first that such an agreement is merely a memorandum of rates of pay and of regulations governing the conditions of employment of the members of the union. "It is not a contract for labour or even an offer, but merely usage."[4] On the other hand, the contract may be held valid, imposing specific obligations, to be observed with exactness and good faith[5].

Of course not every case falls under one or the other of these definite positions; and indeed a practical consequence of the doctrine of the unions themselves is to give something of a midway position to their agreements; while students of the question who have regarded such agreements with favour recommend leaving their observance to good faith rather than to enforcement by judicial procedure. In some instances, also, the courts have seemed to adopt a sort of "hands off" policy, recognising the propriety of the parties' action in formulating rules to govern their relations if they so desire, but looking upon those rules as of a moral and voluntary nature, rather than as legal and binding.

Thus in a case in which a third party complained of the effect of an agreement between a group of employers and a labour union, it was said that while a collective agreement might involve elements rendering it invalid and unenforceable in a court of law (i.e. as between the parties), they are not necessarily "illegal in the sense of giving a right of action to third parties for injury sustained; . . . when equal rights clash the law cannot interfere"[6]; and that as

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[1] Loewe *v.* Lawlor (1908), 208 U.S. 274, 28 Sup. Ct. 301.

[2] United Mine Workers *v.* Coronado Coal Co. (1922), 259 U.S. 344, 42 Sup. Ct. 570.

[3] Schlesinger *v.* Quinto (1922), 192 N.Y. Supp. 564; St. Paul Typothetae *v.* St. Paul Bookbinders' Union (1905), 94 Minn. 351, 102 N.W. 725; Branson *v.* Industrial Workers of the World (1908), 30 Nev. 270, 95 Pac. 354; Coronado case, *supra*.

[4] Hudson *v.* Cincinnati, etc. R. Co. (1913), 152 Ky. 711, 164 S.W. 47.

[5] Nederlandsch Amerikaansche Stoomvart Maatschappij *v.* Stevedores' Beneficial Society (1920), 265 Fed. 397.

[6] National Fireproofing Co. *v.* Mason Builders' Association (C.C.A. 1909), 169 Fed. 259.

regards enforcement or construction, " the law takes them as it finds them, and as it finds them leaves them ". In other words, rules affecting members of such groups may be valid as to them, while unenforceable at law, the courts going no farther than to say that the persons party thereto are left to their own contracts, unless actually unlawful, " and the courts will not, either directly or indirectly, compel their performance "[1]. But neither will they dissolve such a contract at the instance of an outsider who is adversely affected, in the absence of a superior legal right, as by an existing contract, in the absence of unlawful or oppressive objects or methods of enforcement.

In the langage of one of the courts[2]:

> A contract between private persons may provide that it shall cease to be obligatory or be void if either party to it shall employ non-union men, and the law will permit the provisions to have full force ; and so with an inhibition against the hiring of union men, and with all other stipulations which are not impossible of performance, not immoral, nor contrary to public policy.

Clearly, the idea of enforcement is not in mind, but only of a permission, within the limits of legality. But it was held in this case, and uniformly by the courts, that a municipality or similar public agency cannot enter into any agreement to make any provision by which preference shall be given to union workmen, or employment conditions be determined by organisations of workmen[3]. This is said to be on grounds of avoiding any tendency towards monopoly, and increasing the cost of public works in violation of public policy.

That collective agreements lie outside the realm of judicial construction and enforcement appears also to have been the attitude of the Supreme Court of Minnesota in passing on an action for damages for the breach of such an agreement on the part of the union[4]. Right to sue was denied because the parties were unincorporated associations and therefore not legal entities. It was intimated that a proceeding in equity might be available in a proper case ; but any action at law must be in the name of the individuals

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[1] O'Brien *v.* Musical Protection and Beneficial Union (1903), 64 N.J. Eq. 525, 54 Atl. 150.

[2] State *v.* Toole (1901), 26 Mont. 22, 66 Pac. 496.

[3] Adams *v.* Brennan (1898), 177 Ill. 194, 52 N.E. 314 ; Marshall and Bruce Co. *v.* Nashville (1903), 109 Tenn. 495, 71 S.W. 815; Wagner *v.* City of Milwaukee (1922), 177 Wis. 410, 188 N.W. 487.

[4] St. Paul Typothetae *v.* St. Paul Bookbinders' Union (1905), 94 Minn. 351, 102 N.W. 725.

composing the association, however numerous they might be. The question was raised but not answered whether the associations could be regarded as the agents of their members ; though if this view were accepted the fact of agency would require clear proof. In another view, the members might be held liable because holding themselves out as agents of a non-existent principal[1]. However, a law of Pennsylvania was said by a Federal court to relieve from personal liability the members of an association sued by an employer for breach of a collective agreement, and recourse to " the more flexible remedy in equity " was suggested as probably more suitable in an effort to enforce liability against the treasury of the association[2].

The view of non-enforcement was likewise expressed in a case[3] where it was said that, granting that the company had certain agreements recognising the union, there was no contract requiring the employment of any number of men for any particular time ; and even though a binding contract might exist, a court of equity would not direct a preferred employment of one man over another, the remedy for broken contracts being in an action at law. Furthermore, " running through the entire structure of the [railroad] brotherhoods [the unions concerned] is the thought that the brotherhoods themselves provide the tribunals for the final settlement of the rights of the members ". The court therefore declined to intervene ; and in a slightly earlier case the same court refused an injunction to restrain employers from breaching an agreement, even though their action was " a direct violation of contract "[4].

If a personal appraisal may be made of these opinions, it is to the effect that this court has unwarrantably confused the mandatory and restrictive aspects of the injunctions sought, and has likewise without warrant refused to give effect to arrangements entered into by competent minds acting in a manner of their own choosing ; for while in no case can an employer be coerced by strike or boycott into an acceptance of a collective agreement that will be recognised by any court[5], the fact that workmen refuse to continue in service until an employer has signed such an agreement does not furnish grounds for evading its terms[6] ; and practically to deny any binding

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[1] Lewis *v.* Tilton (1884), 65 Iowa 220, 19 N.W. 911.
[2] Ehrlich *v.* Willonski (1905), 138 Fed. 425.
[3] Mosshamer *v.* Wabash R. Co. (1922), 221 Mich. 407, 191 N.W. 210.
[4] Schwartz *v.* Driscoll (1922), 217 Mich. 384, 186 N.W. 522.
[5] O'Brien *v.* People (1905), 216 Ill. 354, 75 N.E. 108.
[6] Maisel *v.* Sigman (1924), 205 N.Y. Supp. 807.

effect to an agreement made by competent parties is to disregard widely recognised developments in this field. Such was the vigorous contention of two judges in a minority opinion in opposition to the judgment of the Supreme Court of the State of Mississippi, when, sitting as a court of equity, it refused to construe an agreement purporting to give certain employees, members of the contracting association, preference on account of seniority[1]. The court's refusal was based on the ground that it could not decree specific performance of a contract for personal service ; but the dissenting opinion pointed out that no such proposition was involved in the case, but merely the construction of a contract regulating the rights of the parties, and its enforcement by granting an injunction against its violation. It was said that the contract was lawful, and on a lawful subject matter ; and further that :

> The courts ought to keep pace with the progress and advancement of the country. Old principles should be extended and applied to new conditions ; and, if necessary to the ends of justice, new principles should be developed and declared by the courts.

A rather noncommittal recognition of collective agreements was given by the Supreme Court of Connecticut in a case[2] where coercion to secure the acceptance of such an agreement was penalised, though it was said to contain " no provisions which are contrary to the criminal law of this State ", nor was the mere purpose to procure acceptance in itself criminal ; but there could be no intimidation to secure that end. A like statement was made by a Federal judge in a case in which coercive methods were adopted, the court adding[3] :

> It is true that they [the members of the union] have the right to combine and act through agents selected by themselves to apply for said work and bargain collectively as to the terms upon which it is to be done ; but the combined right is, in law, no greater than the right of a single worker.

Doctrine of Usage

The significance of that construction of a collective agreement that classes it merely as a memorandum of rates of pay, etc. is further indicated by saying that it simply sets forth " an established method of dealing, adopted in a particular place, or by those engaged

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[1] Chambers *v.* Davis (1922), 128 Miss. 613, 91 So. 346.
[2] State *v.* Stockbridge (1904), 77 Conn. 227, 58 Atl. 769.
[3] J. C. McFarland Co. *v.* O'Brien (1925), 6 Fed. (2d) 1016.

in a particular vocation or trade, which acquires legal force because people make contracts with reference to it "[1]. In line with this attitude is that of another court in an earlier case[2], where it was said : " That the miners' union, as an organisation, cannot make a contract for its individual members in respect to the performance of work and payment for it, in our opinion, is too clear for discussion. " And a widely recognised compendium of law[3] says :

> A labour union ordinarily has no authority to contract with employers of its members in respect to the performance of work and payment for it. In order to bind the individual members, they must exercise assent to the terms of the contract. Such assent will not be implied from the fact that they have knowledge at the time of the contract. It cannot maintain an action to enforce a contract made by it on behalf of its members. Nor is it liable to suit on such a contract, which is enforceable only against the individual members who are guilty of a breach of it. An individual member of a labour union, not being bound by the terms of the contract made between the union and his employers as to the time of payment of his wages, has no right to sue therefore on the completion of his work, in the absence of any express contract with him[4].

Of similar import is the view of a United States Circuit Court of Appeals that unincorporated associations of employers and employees respectively lacked the " juristic personality "[5] necessary to the making of a binding agreement, and, " so far as there was any real contract at all, it must have been between the individual members of the different local associations "[6]. However, this opinion may be regarded as going beyond a recognition of the doctrine of a mere declaration of usage, as it states that though there was formally a contract between the two international associations, it was really a separate contract between each employee and his employer ; " or rather, that the provisions of the contract, upon its being entered into, became terms of the separate contracts of employment between each member of the . . . [employers' association] and the members of the union in his employ ".

The result of this conclusion seems to be that the collective

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[1] Cited in the Hudson case, *supra*.

[2] Burnetta *v.* Marceline Coal Co. (1904), 180 Mo. 241, 79 S.W. 136.

[3] *Cyclopedia of Law and Procedure*.

[4] 24 Cyc. 824.

[5] In this connection, attention may be called to the recognition of " juristic personality " by the Supreme Court of the United States in the Coronado case, *supra*, where the capacity of labour organisations to be sued was definitely asserted, their capacity to sue being as clearly implied ; and if legal persons in these respects, capacity to contract would seem of necessity to follow.

[6] A. R. Barnes and Co. *v.* Berry (1909), 169 Fed. 225, 94 C.C.A. 501.

agreement offers a standard form of contract, binding on the individual as are ordinary personal contracts, as and when accepted by him by rendering or receiving service subsequent to the agreed date of inception of the agreement. The court below had taken the ground that the contract could not be enforced against the men if they chose to leave employment, which is obviously correct; but it was regarded as affording grounds for enjoining the officers from instigating strikes in violation of its provisions[1] — a rule that was also clearly laid down in a case decided the next year in another court of the same class[2]. On further proceedings in the Barnes case, it was found that no contract had really been entered into, the proposal having been formally rejected by the union; and, in any case, it was " not a contract of employment between members " of the two associations, but only a contract between the two associations to secure certain uniform and fair conditions, and avoid disputes. No effort would therefore be made by the courts to enforce, either directly or indirectly, the employers' claim of a contract[3] — a position that, as already indicated, was sustained by the higher court.

Doctrine of Legal Validity

In considering the principle of the legal validity of collective agreements it must be understood that they cannot exceed, certainly as regards the services of individual members, the binding effect of separate and individual contracts. No absolute enforcement of a contract for merely personal services is possible in view of the constitutional restriction on involuntary servitude, and for other reasons. But just as damages may be recovered for a breach of personal contracts, so the parties to collective agreements may be held to account for losses occasioned by their breach, but cannot be compelled by legal or equitable processes actually to observe the specific terms of the contract. This was the exact situation in the Nederlandsch, etc. case cited above. The failure of the union to carry out its agreement to furnish the necessary labour caused damage to the shipping company, for which the union was held liable, the contract being regarded by the court as valid and imposing on the union the same responsibility to work, or rather

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[1] A. R. Barnes and Co. *v.* Berry (1907), 156 Fed. 172.
[2] Delaware, L. and W. R. Co. *v.* Switchmen's Union (1908), 158 Fed. 541.
[3] Same case (1908), 157 Fed. 883.

to furnish workmen, as on the employer to pay wages for services rendered.

This latter aspect of such a contract was considered in a New York case[1], where a workman was allowed to recover the difference between the wages the employer had paid him and the amount agreed upon in the employer's contract with the union. " The agreement referred to was a valid contract, which may be enforced in any proper manner. " And a note given to secure the observance of such an agreement is not void for want of consideration[2].

This principle has been carried so far as to permit an agent of a union to present the agreement in a case in which an employee, uninformed as to the particular item involved, had accepted a smaller sum than was due in settlement for his labour, the agreement being declared to be the controlling factor[3]. The same court applied the terms of a national agreement to a case in which workers were asked to report for duty in advance of the time of opening of the plant, the employer being required to pay the sum fixed for time lost on account of failure to give immediate employment[4].

Conversely, where a union agreed to a wage rate below that previously reported to an employer operating under a collective agreement, and the latter continued to pay the higher rate, the union was required to reimburse him in respect of such excess payment[5].

Of like effect with the Gulla case, above, is one in which a workman was held to be entitled to overtime pay, such provision existing in the employer's contract with the union of which the workman was a member[6]. Here, working under the collective contract was held to be an acceptance of it by the individual parties ; but if the circumstances of one's employment indicate specific provisions not in harmony with the terms of the collective agreement, the individual contract will be held to control[7].

How far enforcement, or rather restraint of violation, will go,

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[1] Gulla *v.* Barton (1914), 149 N.Y. Supp. 952.

[2] Simers *v.* Halpern (1909), 114 N.Y. Supp. 163.

[3] Mastell *v.* Salo (1919), 140 Ark. 408, 215 S.W. 583.

[4] Moody *v.* Model Window Glass Co. (1920), 145 Ark. 197, 224 S.W. 436.

[5] Powers *v.* Journeymen Bricklayers (1914), 130 Tenn. 643, 172 S.W. 284.

[6] Keysaw *v.* Dotterweich Brewing Co. (1907), 121 App. Div. 58, 105 N.Y. Supp. 562.

[7] Langmade *v.* Olean Brewing Co. (1910), 137 App. Div. 355, 121 N.Y. Supp. 388.

was considered in a New York case[1], in which an employers' association had passed a resolution contravening the terms of an existing collective agreement. The carrying out of this resolution during the period of existence of the agreement was forbidden by an injunction procured at the instance of the officials of the union, the court saying :

> Each party knows the obligation that it has assumed and the consequences of failure or refusal to perform these requirements. Through its control of its members it can compel performance. An organisation having such power to require performance by individual members can, through its officers, be compelled to exercise that power. There is in this contract a mutuality of obligation, and there is also a mutuality of remedy for its enforcement.

And in a somewhat earlier case[2] it was said :

> Where a strike, or other action, is threatened by a labour union in violation of its contract, ...the jurisdiction of a court of equity to issue an injunction is well recognised.

In line with the Schlesinger case is the action of an inferior court of the State of Ohio in granting an injunction against employers conspiring to breach of an agreement with a union[3] ; while employers were active in securing injunctions against strikes threatened in violation of agreements in a New Jersey case[4], where it was said that a contract promising avoidance of labour troubles on condition of a wage increase was valid, and to be construed just as contracts between individuals ; and in a case in the courts of the State of Georgia[5], in which unions, their officers and members were enjoined against action tending to breach an existing agreement.

Rival unions in conflict as to employment privileges were parties in a case[6] in which a decree refusing an injunction was affirmed, where the object was to disrupt a collective agreement. The latter was said to have been freely made, without infringing on existing contracts, and within recognised lawful principles, so that it would not be disturbed. The same rule was followed in a

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[1] Schlesinger *v.* Quinto, *supra.*

[2] Grassi Contracting Co. *v.* Bennett (1916), 174 App. Div. 242, 160 N.Y. Supp. 279.

[3] Herman Leveranz *v.* Cleveland Home Brewing Co. (1922), Court of Common Pleas, Cuyahoga Co.

[4] Gilchrist Co. *v.* Metal Polishers, etc. (1919), N.J. Eq., 113 Atl. 320.

[5] Burgess *v.* Georgia, F. and A. R. Co. (1918), 148 Ga. 417, 96 S.E. 865.

[6] Hoban *v.* Dempsey (1914), 217 Mass. 166, 104 N.E. 717.

later case[1]; but the agreement there sustained was held not to be a defence in the case of a former member of the union and party to the agreement, now expelled for infractions of his obligations, seeking an injunction and damages for loss of employment on account of the action of the union. He was allowed damages, the court saying that it was not stated in his contract that employment was to be limited by his continuance in membership in the union[2]. However, this position seems to have been taken because of an alleged " dominant purpose " to make the plaintiff " an example before their membership ", so as to hold the union more effectively together, questions of motive as well as status being involved in the decision. But when later the same plaintiff renewed his efforts against the union, and the court found that his status was the same as that of any other person outside the scope of the agreement which he was attacking, inasmuch as it was a valid contract between the parties, he was held to have no redress[3].

Quite similar to the Hoban case above was one[4] in which a rival union sought to displace one already in contract relations with an employer. Such action was said to afford ground for relief against the offending union. At the same time an injunction was allowed to prevent the same competing organisation from interfering with the employees of an employer party to the agreement[5]. These decisions sustained the agreement as valid, and entitled not only to observance by the parties thereto, but also to respect by third parties. Another point decided at the same time was that an employer will not be enjoined from hiring non-union workmen if the union with which he is in contract relations is unable to supply him with a sufficient number of men[6]

Within the rule above set forth is a finding that an employer freely and legally contracting for the exclusive employment of the members of a specified union cannot be enjoined from discharging non-union employees[7]. Still less would it be objectionable to agree to employ a stated percentage of union members where the union comprises a larger proportion of local labour of the class

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[1] Tracey *v.* Osborne (1917), 226 Mass. 25, 114 N.E. 959.
[2] Shinsky *v.* Tracey (1917), 226 Mass. 21, 114 N.E. 957.
[3] Shinsky *v.* O'Neil (1919), 232 Mass. 99, 121 N.E. 790.
[4] Lovely *v.* Gill (1923), 245 Mass. 577, 140 N.E. 285.
[5] Knipe Bros. *v.* White, *ib.*
[6] Goyette *v.* Watson, *ib.*
[7] Mills *v.* United States Printing Co. (1904), 99 App. Div. 605, 91 N.Y. Supp. 185; Kissam *v.* Same (1910), 199 N.Y. 76, 92 N.E. 214.

affected than that named[1]. And in another case[2] the court pronounced agreement by a manufacturing company to give all its work to the members of a union " legal and valid ", for the enforcement of which a strike might be legally undertaken ; but if such exclusive provision is not incorporated in the agreement, a strike to compel a closed shop would be enjoined ; nor will presumptions be indulged in as to the power of union officials to " create either by word or conduct a binding bargain in behalf of members of their union ", in the absence of authorisation, express or implied, " by the members in some form sufficient to show mutuality of will and consent "[3].

Though, as indicated by the Mills and Kissam cases above, an employer can without liability discharge one objectionable to the union with which he has contract relations, since he may at any time and for any reason — or without reason for that matter — dismiss a workman not under contract for a definite term, the union cannot offer such contract as a defence if the employee sues for damages for causing his discharge, since his right to choose his own course and relationships is entitled to protection[4]. However, it has been held that no liability attaches where the contract is for the employment of members in good standing and a workman by his conduct incurs suspension from the union and consequent discharge[5]. So also where officers of a union merely inform an employer that a workman in his employ under a contract for no definite term is not a member of the union and his discharge follows, it has been held that the union incurs no liability therefor[6].

In line with the principles stated above is a statement of the Supreme Court of the State of Washington[7], that it was not a strike for workmen to leave an employer who had lost membership in an association with which the union had a reciprocal closed agreement, since, on account of his own conduct leading to expulsion, " he had placed himself in a position where certain workmen could not remain in or enter into his employment without violating their agreement ".

Appeal to a court of law rather than one of equity was broadly

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[1] Underwood *v.* Texas P. R. Co. (1915), Tex. Civ. App., 178 S.W. 38.

[2] Smith *v.* Bowen (1919), 232 Mass. 106, 121 N.E. 814.

[3] W. A. Snow Iron Works (Inc.) *v.* Chadwick (1917), 227 Mass. 332, 116 N.E. 801.

[4] Berry *v.* Donovan (1905), 188 Mass. 353, 74 N.E. 603 ; Curran *v.* Galen (1897), 152 N.Y. 33, 46 N.E. 297.

[5] Scarano *v.* Lemlein (1910), 121 N.Y. Supp. 351.

[6] Cusuman *v.* Schlesinger (1915), 152 N.Y. Supp. 1081.

[7] Uden *v.* Schaefer (1920), 110 Wash. 391, 188 Pac. 395.

intimated in a case[1], where it was said that if an employer broke his contract, the union might proceed as in any other case of wrongful discharge of an employee. The recovery of agreed sums as liquidated damages for breach of such contract has been recognised by the courts[2]; nor can duress be pleaded in excuse of failure to pay a sum awarded by arbitration in accordance with the terms of an agreement[3]; but where it appeared that the payment of a fine was secured by coercion for an alleged but unproved violation of an agreement by the employer, he was held entitled to recover the sum paid[4]. In any case, the end in view in forming the contract must be lawful, and an agreement that involves illegal consequences, as of monopoly or interference with the business rights of others, loses its validity thereby, and forfeitures or penal assessments for failure to carry it out will be classed as coercive and unlawful[5].

An unusual construction was one that opened an agreement between an organisation and an employer fixing working conditions for a specified class of workers, so as to extend its provisions to include a member of that class, not a member of the union[6]. Thus, not only did the agreement establish usage, but it fixed the employment conditions for all who recognised it and treated it as determinative. And the same court, in an earlier case[7], ruled that the union alone was clothed with power to contract for its members so long as they remained in membership, so that employees willing to continue at work under an expired contract could not do so in opposition to the rules of the union; nor could the employer have an injunction to prevent the calling out of the workmen so continuing to work, or the termination of his right to place the union label on his products.

An incidental consequence of the acceptance of the terms of a labour organisation as controlling the conditions of employment was developed in a case[8] in which the Supreme Court of Louisiana refused to hold a contracting stevedore liable for the injury of a

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[1] Stone Cleaning and Pointing Union *v.* Russell (1902), 77 N.Y. Supp. 1049, 38 Misc. 513.

[2] Jacobs *v.* Cohen (1905), 183 N.Y. 207, 76 N.E. 5; Simers *v.* Halpern (1909), 114 N.Y. Supp. 163.

[3] Maisel *v.* Sigman (1924), 205 N.Y. Supp. 807.

[4] Burke *v.* Fay (1908), 128 Mo. App. 690, 107 S.W. 408.

[5] Martel *v.* White (1904), 185 Mass, 255, 68 N.E. 1085.

[6] Gregg *v.* Starks (1920), 188 Ky. 834, 224 S.W. 459.

[7] Saulsberry *v.* Coopers' International Union (1912), 147 Ky. 170, 143 S.W. 1018.

[8] Farmer *v.* Kearney (1905), 115 La. 722, 39 So. 967

workman in the hold of a vessel, due to the negligence of a workman on deck. Both workmen were members of unions whose rules controlled the engagement of the men and their working conditions in every respect, so that an employer accepting their services on such terms was held to be absolved from liability for the negligent act causing the injury ; and so where union miners undertook to furnish a shot firer[1]. The same rule was applied by another court in a later case involving injury to a labourer employed by the agent of a union which exercised exclusive jurisdiction over longshore workers at a certain dock, except that a compensation statute was in force[2].

An opposite view, at least to the Edwards case, was taken by courts of the States of Iowa and Washington. In the former[3], the court regarded the shot firer as essentially the employee of the mine operator, and his delegation to the miners of the right to hire and discharge a workman performing an indispensable duty in connection with the operation under their agreement did not change the relationship. In the second case, a longshoremen's union had furnished the workman found incompetent, but the employer was held responsible as he had made no enquiry as to the fitness of the workman for the specific job at which he was employed[4] ; nor could the employer plead his contract with the union to furnish competent help as a defence.

The question of monopoly, either actual or potential, was urged in several of the cases noted above, but was resolved in favour of the agreements. However, where monopoly is actually created or threatened, an agreement so restricting employment in an industry will be declared invalid[5], since to hamper the freedom of employment or coerce workmen into undesired associations " militates against the spirit of our government and the nature of our institutions ". Therefore, an association of employers practically covering their trade locally cannot enter into a closed shop agreement with a labour organisation, though an individual employer might do so[6]. In an Illinois case[7] it was broadly stated that a contract providing for the exclusive employment of the members

[1] Edwards' Adm'r *v.* Lam (1909), 132 Ky. 32, 119 S.W. 175.
[2] Hines *v.* Henry I. Stetler, Inc. (1921), 188 N.Y. Supp 73.
[3] Bidwell Coal Co. *v.* Davidson (1919), 189 Iowa 809, 174 N.W. 592.
[4] Pearson *v.* Alaska Pac. S.S. Co. (1909), 51 Wash. 560, 99 Pac. 753.
[5] Curran *v.* Galen, *supra.*
[6] McCord *v.* Thompson-Starrett Co. (1910), 198 N.Y. 587, 92 N.E. 1090.
[7] Christensen *v.* People (1904), 114 Ill. App. 40.

of unions would be unlawful as tending to create monopoly. And invalidity will certainly be declared where the agreement is found to conflict with a statute forbidding combinations in restraint of trade[1]. And where an agreement existed that established a practical monopoly, it was held that a workman thereby excluded from employment was entitled to damages, the agreement being of an unlawful nature, containing " not only the seeds but the fruit of monopoly "[2].

An employer likewise may have both an injunction and damages where unions of employers use their agreement with the workmen's unions to undertake to drive the non-member employer out of business, both because it is an unlawful interference with his property rights and because the existing agreement " tended and was calculated to create a virtual monopoly " of the work affected[3]. Nor can an agreement tending toward a monopolisation of the labour market afford any basis for interfering with the conduct of an undertaking by one not a party thereto, or make it an excuse for terminating existing contracts[4]. It has been held, however, that an anti-trust statute that " speaks in terms of business or commerce, produce, merchandise, or commodity " does not apply to a collective agreement in respect of its establishment of the " closed shop ", even though the agreement is with the " greater number " of the employers in the industry in the locality[5]. If the agreement does no more than to regulate conditions of employment for a group of workers who represent only one section of an industry in which there is effective competition, or if but a single employer is involved, the parties will be left free to formulate and carry out their plans without interference by the courts[6].

An attack on an agreement between organisations of employers and employees by an employer outside the association on the ground that he was thereby deprived of the services of union workmen was rejected by a California court on the ground that the situation was merely the result of the exercise by the parties of their

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[1] Campbell *v.* People (1922), 72 Colo. 203, 210 Pac. 841.

[2] Connors *v.* Connally (1913), 86 Conn. 641, 86 Atl. 600.

[3] Brescia Construction Co. *v.* Stone Masons' Contractors' Ass'n (1921), App. Div., 187 N.Y. Supp. 77.

[4] Lehigh Structural Steel Co. *v.* Atlantic Smelting, etc. Works (1920), 92 N.J. Eq. 131, 111 Atl. 376.

[5] Reihing *v.* Local Union No. 52, I.B.E.W. (1920), 94 N.J.L. 240, 109 Atl. 367.

[6] Window Glass Mfrs. *v.* United States (1923), 263 U.S. 403, 44 Sup. Ct. 148 ; Jacobs *v.* Cohen, *supra.*

right of freedom to make or refuse contracts of employment, either singly or in co-operation[1]. But when it was shown that the associations were practically monopolising the local printing industry in restraint of trade or commerce, their conduct was found to be "tainted with illegality", and coercive methods adopted to force the plaintiff employer into the association became actionable[2]. Similarly, the validity under an anti-trust law of an agreement that related only to service was upheld in a New York case[3]; but when the union sought to extend the contract so as to fix the price of the employers' products, the factor of illegality became a bar to such proceeding and a strike to secure the purpose indicated was held subject to an injunction[4].

Conclusion

The reader who has had the patience to go through the variant — sometimes concordant, sometimes conflicting — expressions of the courts given in the foregoing pages is entitled to the satisfaction of knowing that he has traversed practically the field of decisions on the subject; so that if it were possible to piece together into a congruous system the opinions presented, the result would be the judicial declaration of the law of collective agreements. But the present impossibility of such an achievement is evident from a comparison of the position taken, for instance, by the courts of New York and New Jersey with that of the courts of Illinois

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[1] Overland Publishing Co. *v.* Union Lithograph Co. (1922), 57 Cal. App. 366, 207 Pac. 412.

[2] Overland Publishing Co. *v.* H. S. Crocker Co. (1924), 193 Cal. 109, 222 Pac. 812.

[3] People *v.* Epsteen (1918), 102 Misc. 476, 170 N.Y. Supp. 68.

[4] Standard Engraving Co. *v.* Volz (1922), 200 App. Div. 758, 193 N.Y. Supp. 831. Reference may here be made to an opinion of the Supreme Court delivered since this article was written. The building contractors, manufacturers of millwork (window and door frames, mouldings, etc.), and the carpenters' union of Chicago formed an agreement to prevent the use of non-union-made millwork in the city of Chicago. The District Court found that this was an agreement in restraint of inter-State commerce; the Circuit Court of Appeals reversed this judgment on the ground of failure of proof to support the charge, the agreement dealing merely with the product of non-union labour regardless of its origin. The Supreme Court, in reviewing and reversing this decision, found that the purpose of the agreement was to eliminate the competition of non-union mills located outside Illinois which sold their product in the Chicago market cheaper than local manufacturers who employed union labour could afford to do, and that, "as intended by all the parties, the so-called outside competition was cut down and thereby inter-State commerce directly and materially impeded." (U.S. *v.* Brims, Sup. Ct. No. 212, October term 1926.)

and Michigan. However, certain agreements of opinion are apparent ; as that, while no coercion in the formation of agreements is permissible, when the agreement is once formed the courts generally favour its observance, in the absence of monopoly, as against alleged grievances suffered by persons not party to them ; and the larger number of courts in which the issue has been raised recognise claims for damages as in the case of the breach of any other service contract, though admittedly some courts seem to assume an attitude of unconcern.

The highly regarded judicial opinion of the State of New York is to the effect that observance of such agreements is procurable through procedure in law or in equity as the circumstances may indicate, agreed penalties or proved damages being recoverable on a proper showing, threatened violations being also subject to injunction. The same position has been adopted in some other States and by various Federal courts, and the attitude of the latter, so far as expression has been developed, appears to be favourable to the observance of such agreements.

Cases are found in encouraging numbers and on satisfactory reasons, calling for an exact application of the terms of an agreement to the contract of the individual whether employer or workman ; and no arbitrary or *ex parte* modification or interpretation will be allowed ; though over against them is the less common opinion that nothing more than a mere memorandum of usage is formulated.

Though not brought to exact expression in any considerable number of instances the conclusion seems nevertheless to be warranted that a union will be held responsible for failure to employ disciplinary measures to procure the performance of an agreed undertaking, even when an individual workman could not be so controlled. In this fact lies one of the most potent suggestions of effectiveness, not only because the courts so hold, but even more because the central bodies of the labour unions, with their wider perspective, have assumed such attitude with reference to constituent unions on various occasions. Keeping in mind that the reciprocal application of this rule equally affects employers, whether groups or individuals, this fact illustrates the so-called " constitutionalising of industry " in one of its most striking aspects.

The basis of such a development is the recognition of the interest of the employee as well as the employer in the undertaking in which both are engaged — a recognition which tends to sustain and extend the idea of " government by discussion ". How far mutual agreements are to be encouraged, and to what subjects they shall extend,

is a matter of primary importance. Almost without exception so-called monopoly is subjected to judicial condemnation ; but if harmony and fairly uniform and equitable wages and employment conditions are desirable for a portion of the group, why not for all ? The solution is not to be found in disintegration or the abolition of organisation ; no return to the complete individualism of the middle ages of industry can be conceived of as possible. Nor is it in a compulsory membership in associations of either employers or employees, though perhaps favoured treatment, as practised in some European countries, might produce desirable results in the way of solidarity. Nor, again, can the rights of the consuming public be overlooked ; neither can they, as human nature now is, be left entirely to the conclusions arrived at by the parties engaged in production. Rights and interests correlate and interact — are even in conflict, as usually regarded ; but there is a challenge to human intelligence and judgment to develop an adequate *modus operandi*, so as permanently to eliminate such terrific wastes as those involved, for recent illustration, in the anthracite coal strike of 1925-1926, giving rise to losses estimated to be in excess of half a billion dollars, besides much suffering. This was adjusted at length by a collective agreement of five years' agreed duration ; but more than battle and treaty — with a poorly camouflaged bill of costs to be paid by the until then excluded third party — must constitute the established economic mechanism.

No perfect system brought full-fledged into the world can be looked for. Rather, the process will be that described by one of our venerable justices of the Supreme Court :

> New policies are usually tentative in their beginnings, advance in firmness as they advance in acceptance. They do not at a particular moment of time spring full-perfect in extent or means from the legislative brain. Time may be necessary to fashion them to precedent customs and conditions, and as they justify themselves or otherwise they pass from militancy to triumph or from question to repeal.

But it seems obvious, in the light of present developments, that an outstanding factor in the hoped-for adjustment will be the collective agreement, freely formed, equitably balanced as regards employer, employees, and the public, and faithfully observed in the light of its conception and just interpretation.

The Protection of the Workers against Unfair Dismissal in Continental Legislation

by

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Many European countries have already included in their legislation provisions for the protection of employed persons against unfair or unjustified dismissal. Sometimes the law specifies the cases in which notice of dismissal is provisionally forbidden (such as military service, sickness, accident, etc.); sometimes the works council or other similar body is authorised to intervene. Other provisions are for the payment of wages for a minimum period from the date notice is given, or of a specified sum as compensation for possible injury suffered by the dismissed worker. The period of notice to be given and the amount of wages or compensation which the employer is liable to pay are usually graduated according to the worker's period of service, but there are wide differences in the systems and scales adopted for this purpose, as well as in the legal principles which underlie the choice of the solution adopted in each country.

MOST workers earn their livelihood and support their families by working for wages in another person's service on the basis of a contract of employment. This being their economic situation, they are usually much more exposed to the risk of distress if the employer cancels the contract, than the latter is if notice is given by the worker. It follows that the worker needs protection against dismissal without justification or perhaps even for purely arbitrary or objectionable reasons, and also against the consequent risks. This need has sometimes been expressed in somewhat inaccurate and exaggerated terms as the worker's right to security of tenure of his employment, of which he should not be deprived without just cause. It must, of course take second place in circumstances which make it unreasonable to require the employer to continue the contract, that is to say, in cases of so-called " extraordinary "

notice, or, to take the rather unsatisfactory description in recent German law (section 84, paragraph 2, of the German Works Councils Act of 4 February 1920; section 2, paragraph 3, of the German Act of 9 July 1926 on the dismissal of salaried employees), dismissal without observance of the period of notice (*fristlose Kündigung*). In the following survey cases of this kind will therefore be left out of account, although it must not be forgotten that in many countries, especially France, the law does not make so sharp a distinction between ordinary and extraordinary dismissal.

Such protection against unfair dismissal is virtually non-existent in English law, the only form of protection being that afforded by the practice of the courts (based on the interpretation of contracts and on standards of fairness) of recognising periods of notice[1]. As the peculiarities of English law have left it without influence on the development of continental legislation, this study may reasonably leave both it and the systems of law derived from it out of account.

General Survey of the Problem

At first sight the most obvious way of protecting the workers against unfair dismissal would seem to be to deny the employer's right to cancel the contract of employment in the absence of justifying circumstances. This is the line taken by Nipperdey in his recent attempt to deduce the protection of the worker from general principles[2], his argument being that under sections 134 and 138 of the German Civil Code of 18 August 1896 any notice of dismissal which is contrary to the law or offends against public order and morals (*die guten Sitten*) is null and void. But this opinion, which has hitherto been advanced only incidentally, still lacks more detailed substantiation. A probable reason for finding it untenable is that in the general view the giving of notice is an abstract legal transaction, and therefore its legal validity cannot be directly affected by any contravention of law or morals in the motive. The illegality or immorality of the dismissal does not lie in the act of giving notice itself, but rather in the fact that the consequent termination of the contract of employment has disadvantageous effects for the worker which do not seem

[1] Cf. Knowles-Smith: *A Treatise on the Law of Master and Servant*, pp. 34 *et seq.*; and Slesser-Henderson: *Industrial Law*, pp. 31 *et seq.*, especially p. 34.

[2] Nipperdey: *Beiträge zum Tarifrecht*, pp. 64 *et seq.* and bibliography; Gueck in Molitor-Gueck-Riezler: *Der Arbeitsvertrag und der Entwurf*, p. 210.

justified. It is not the act of giving notice as such but its results that are open to objection. This was recognised as early as the 'seventies of last century in the practice of the French Court of Cassation, which on plausible grounds repeatedly adopted the view that the worker can at any time give notice, even without adequate reason[1]. In practice, however, it would lead to a scarcely tolerable state of uncertainty if the validity of any notice of dismissal could be called into question subsequently, perhaps even after a considerable period, on the ground that the results of the dismissal were disadvantageous.

It follows that the only way to introduce a measure of the kind advocated by Gueck[2] would be to determine by law the particular circumstances in which notice of dismissal is allowable or not. But so radical a form of protection against unfair dismissal is to be found only in the law of Soviet Russia : according to section 47 of the Labour Code of 9 November 1922 the employer may terminate the contract of employment only in certain specified circumstances which justify dismissal.

In other countries the application of the principle is limited to particular cases, in which dismissal would be especially unfair to the worker, and is therefore provisionally forbidden. Apart from the not infrequent measures which impose restrictions only when the notice is given for a specified reason, such as war or demobilisation, or for specified groups of workers, such as apprentices, war-disabled men, etc., the regulations in question usually relate to cases of military service, sickness, nursing mothers, or pregnancy (as in section 23 and section 69, paragraphs 2 and 4, of the Swiss Factory Act of 18 June 1914), of sickness or accident for which the worker is not responsible (as in section 8 of the Luxemburg Act of 31 October 1919 on contracts of employment of private employees), of military service, sickness, or accident (as in sections 7 and 8 *f* of the Belgian Employees Act of 7 August 1922), or to the holiday period (as in section 14 of the Polish Government Bill of 1924 on employees). Older laws (e.g. section 133*c*, paragraph 2, of the German Industrial Code as amended to 1 June 1891 and section 63 of the German Commercial Code of 10 May 1897) are satisfied instead with laying down that in such cases, in spite

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[1] For further particulars on this judicial practice, cf. THÉRY ; *Caractères généraux de la réglementation jurisprudentielle du contrat de travail en droit français*, pp. 174 *et seq.* For Italian judicial practice, which leads to the same result, cf. BARASSI : *Il contratto di lavoro*, Vol. 2, p. 830, note.

[2] Cf. MOLITOR-GUECK-RIEZLER : *loc. cit.*

of the consequent termination of the contract, the claim on the employer for the payments due under the contract continues to hold good for a specified period — a regulation somewhat different in form but leading in practice to the same result.

The most important of these restrictions from the point of view of the protection of the worker against unfair dismissal are those which limit the employer's rights by requiring the intervention of the workers' representative bodies. This may be done in various ways. For instance, under section 5, paragraph 2, of the Norwegian Act of 23 July 1920 on workers' committees in industrial undertakings, the committee may and must intervene only if the dismissal leads to a dispute, and try to promote a settlement; under section 3(9) of the Austrian Works Councils Act of 15 May 1919, the council may in certain cases protest against the dismissal; under the Czechoslovakian Order for the administration of section 2(6) of the Act of 25 February 1920 on works and district councils in the mining industry, the works council has direct powers to intervene in dismissals, or the dismissed worker may appeal to the council against the notice. This latter form of regulation is very similar to that contained in sections 84 *et seq.* of the German Works Councils Act of 4 February 1920, which will be discussed below in greater detail, as it forms the starting-point for an entirely different line of development of the protection of the worker against unfair dismissal.

Compensation in the French System of Law for Unjustified Dismissal

In order to understand the various forms that the protection against unfair dismissal takes in different countries it is necessary to go back to the above-mentioned judicial practice of the French Court of Cassation, which contains the germ of the various possibilities. The French Civil Code, which deals only very superficially with the employment relation, originally contained no provisions on the termination of employment contracts, and for this very reason the practice of the courts was based on the view that it was open to either party to give notice at any time. As this may obviously prove unfair in practice, however, especially if by agreement or custom a specified period of notice has to be observed, it is the French judicial practice to argue from the doctrine of the abuse of rights, and from the general principle of

section 1,382 of the Civil Code on unlawful acts, that the party giving notice is bound to indemnify the other party for the injuries arising out of the abusive exercise of the right to give notice.

At the demand of the workers this principle was also given statutory expression — although not without a struggle — in section 1,780 of the Civil Code as amended to 27 December 1890, and was also incorporated in section 23 of the Labour Code. The two texts run as follows :

> A contract of employment which is not concluded for a specified period may at any time be terminated at the wish of either of the contracting parties.
>
> Notwithstanding, the termination of the contract at the wish of only one of the contracting parties may give grounds for a claim to compensation.
>
> In determining the amount of the compensation account shall be taken of local custom, the nature of the services performed, the period of employment, deductions from wages and allowances made with a view to a pension, and, in general, of all circumstances indicating the existence of an injury and determining its extent.
>
> The parties may not surrender in advance any right to claim compensation under the above provisions.
>
> If disputes arising out of the application of the above provisions are brought before the civil courts or courts of appeal, they shall be treated as urgent cases and settled at the earliest possible date.

The enumeration in the third paragraph of the particular circumstances affecting the decision in question, especially the reference to pension funds, is reminiscent of the individual cases out of which the principle has been developed in the course of judicial practice. The very confused discussions in the legislature leave it uncertain whether this legislation merely confirms previous judicial practice or amends the existing law[1]. In particular, it is disputed whether the intention or determination to injure the other party is a necessary condition for the claim to compensation, or whether, as is generally held now, it is sufficient that the sudden termination of the contract should appear arbitrary and injurious[2]. It is further disputed whether the party claiming compensation must prove only the giving of notice and the injury caused thereby, or whether he must also prove its unfairness. In this question of proof, which is in practice of great importance, it is usually assumed that the mere assertion that a worker who has been

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[1] Cf. Pic : *Traité élémentaire de législation industrielle*, 5th ed., p. 834 and *passim* ; and Baudry-Wahl : *Droit civil*, 3rd ed., Vol. 21, Part 2, pp. 591 *et seq.*

[2] On individual cases cf. Théry : *op. cit.*, p. 177, and Pic : *op. cit.*, pp. 834 *et seq.*

employed for some time has been given notice without apparent reason is insufficient to justify a claim, and that he must rather produce evidence that the dismissal involves an abuse of rights, although often this is hardly practicable. In this respect, the practice of the courts is not yet definitely established[1].

The Government Bill of 2 July 1906 on contracts of employment proposed in section 53 to settle the question by deciding that the court should have the right to require the party giving the notice to state his reasons, and to make further enquiries to determine whether the notice so given was an abuse of rights. But the Bill was not passed. Consequently, it is only in rare and particularly flagrant cases that the worker claims compensation for unjustified dismissal, over and above the loss of his wages during the period of notice, under the law quoted above, which technically treats both parties equally, but in reality is probably applied only in favour of the worker. Thus the other and minor injuries, which are usually difficult to prove, are never compensated.

A closer examination will show that the provision in question is based only apparently on a uniform principle, and that in actual fact it contains two legal propositions. In the first place, while it allows the termination of a contract of employment without the period of notice fixed by contract or custom, it tries to ensure the maintenance of this period by requiring the party giving wrongful notice to continue the payment of wages until the termination of the period as a form of compensation — a result achieved much more simply under other laws by the provision that the dismissal does not terminate the contract until the end of the period of notice. Secondly, however, the provision requires the party giving wrongful notice to compensate the other party for consequent injury. Moreover, the above-mentioned Government Bill of 2 July 1906 recognised the existence of two principles by assigning two separate sections, 52 and 53 respectively, to give expression to them.

The countries whose systems of law have been derived from that of France have adopted very different attitudes towards these two principles. As a rule they have accepted the first principle in some form, but have very largely rejected the second. Dutch law is apparently closest to the French example, although it shows some reserve in the second respect. Section 1,639*o* of the Dutch Civil Code as amended to 13 July 1907 provides that

[1] Cf. Théry : *op cit.*, p. 178, note ; Pic : *op. cit.*, p. 836, note.

if the worker is dismissed without notice, without valid reason, he shall continue to receive his wages until the end of the ordinary period of notice, while section 1,639*s* provides that if notice is given regardless of the provisions concerning notice, the party giving such notice is bound to compensate the other party for any further injury arising out of the particular circumstances. Thus if notice is given in conformity with the law, it gives no right to compensation even if it is unjustified. Moreover, the provision is not binding, so that it is open to the parties to agree on other terms. In other laws, at least so far as the worker is concerned, only the first principle has been adopted or contemplated, as, for instance, in section 23 of the Spanish Bills of November 1906, 29 May 1908, and 16 July 1910 on contracts of employment, or section 22 of the Luxemburg Act of 31 October 1919 on the contracts of employment of private employees. A similar result is reached in Italy, where in the main only the obligation to observe the period of notice is recognised, but not any additional obligation to pay compensation for unjustified dismissal[1].

Belgian law does not even go so far. Under section 22 of the Act of 16 March 1900 on contracts of employment, if the employer fails to observe the period of notice, the worker may claim only half his wages for the remainder of the period, up to a maximum of one week's wages, provided this is not contrary to the custom of the trade. According to section 23, additional compensation can be claimed only if further injury is proved. On the other hand, section 15 of the Act of 7 August 1922 on employees' contracts gives an employee dismissed without notice the right to his full salary, including any other advantages due under the contract, for the whole normal period of notice.

The Period of Notice

The worker may thus be given the right to his wages for the period of notice which has not been observed. In French law this is regarded as compensation, in German law as a payment due under the contract until the termination of the period of notice, because until then the contract remains valid and the employer who refuses to employ the worker is not relieved of his contract obligations because the worker no longer works. Once this right is recognised, it is an obvious measure to protect the worker in some

[1] Cf. Barassi: *op. cit.*, pp. 835 *et seq.*

degree by fixing for the employer minimum periods of notice, during which the worker can make his arrangements for the end of the contract, and in particular can look for new employment, so that he is protected at least in some respects against injury.

Provisions of this kind were general until the German Civil Code of 18 August 1896, and are still to be found in the Hungarian Draft Civil Code of 1914 and even in the Finnish Act of 1 June 1922 on contracts of employment. But such minimum periods are as a rule not very effective so long as the law is not coercive, because the employer, who is usually the economically stronger and more adroit party, can set it aside by agreements to the contrary. The provisions therefore serve rather to supplement the wishes of the parties than to protect the workers against unfair dismissal.

It is to the interest of the employer that the worker should not be able to give him short notice ; this circumstance has accordingly been used in German law, and the systems derived from it, to secure a minimum period of notice for the worker by the provision that the periods should be the same for both parties — an attempt to establish by law some degree of equilibrium between two parties of perhaps unequal strength. Such regulations are to be found in section 122 of the German Industrial Code as amended to 1 June 1891; section 67, paragraph 1, of the German Commercial Code of 10 May 1897; section 133*aa*, paragraph 1, of the German Industrial Code as amended to 30 June 1900; section 19, paragraph 3, of the Belgian Act of 10 March 1900 on contracts of employment; section 347, paragraph 3, of the Swiss Code of Obligations of 30 March 1911; section 21, paragraph 2, of the Swiss Factory Act of 18 June 1914; section 20 of the Austrian Commercial Employees Act of 16 January 1910; section 1,159*c* of the Austrian General Civil Code as amended to 19 March 1916; section 20, paragraph 4, of the Austrian Employees Act of 11 May 1921; section 1,099, paragraph 1, of the Czechoslovakian Draft Civil Code of 1924, etc. Ultimately, however, these provisions were intended only to protect the workers against unreasonably short notice, and there was no reason against reducing the period for them. In spite of the contrary wording of the law, therefore, German judicial practice and jurisprudence, giving up the idea of equalising the strength of the parties, often gave the regulations the interpretation that the period of notice should not be shorter for the employer than for the worker[1]. This is explicitly stated in section 1,639*i*, paragraph 2,

[1] Cf. GUECK : *Handbuch des Arbeitsrechts*, Vol. 2, p. 186, note; KASKEL : *Arbeitsrecht*, pp. 121 *et seq.*

of the Dutch Civil Code as amended to 13 July 1907, and section 144 of the German Bill of 1923 on contracts of employment.

This protection for the worker fails, however, if the employer — in order to have the power to give short notice — also agrees to a short period for the worker, a practice which is extraordinarily frequent. In consequence, legislation has often supplemented or replaced the regulations in question by fixing compulsory minimum periods of notice for both employer and worker, or for the former alone. These are to be found, for instance, in section 67, paragraph 1, of the German Commercial Code of 10 May 1897; section 133*aa*, paragraph 1, of the German Industrial Code as amended to 30 June 1900; sections 23 and 24 of the Spanish Government Bills of November 1906, 29 May 1908, and 16 July 1910 on contracts of employment; section 348, paragraph 2, and section 349 of the Swiss Code of Obligations of 30 March 1911; section 20 of the Austrian Commercial Employees Act of 16 January 1910; sections 1,159-1,159*b* of the Austrian General Civil Code as amended to 19 March 1916; section 144, paragraph 2, of the German Bill of 1923 on contracts of employment; section 1,097 of the Czechoslovakian Draft Civil Code of 1924; and section 13 of the Polish Government Bill of 1924 on employees' contracts. A similar result is achieved by section 31 of the Danish Act of 6 May 1921 on the legal relations between masters and servants, which on the French system makes the continued payment of wages, for a specified minimum period after notice is given, compulsory at least for servants under 18 years of age. That the question is not one of the continuation of the contractual relationship, but only of the continued payment of wages, is brought out not only by the evolution of French law as described above, but also very clearly by sections 23 and 24 of the Spanish Government Bills of November 1906, 29 May 1908, and 16 July 1910 on contracts of employment, and section 15 of the Polish Government Bill of 1924 on employees' contracts.

This last form of protection against unfair dismissal is very frequently limited to salaried employees, to the exclusion of manual workers. This is no accident. For the fact that the work of employees is largely intellectual means that a change of employment is usually more difficult for them than for workers; it involves greater intellectual readjustment, and because the work is more individual it is more difficult for an employee to find a post of the particular kind that suits him. This argument increases in force the longer an employee has been employed on a particular job and has become accustomed to the work in ques-

tion, and the greater the demands it makes on his intellectual qualifications and especially on his discretion. Instead of rigid minimum periods of notice, some better form of adjustment to individual cases would therefore seem desirable.

Pioneer work in this respect was done by the Italian Bill of 26 November 1902 on contracts of employment. In accordance with the views then held, this Bill dealt mainly with the contracts of workers, but concluded with a few provisions on the contracts of employees, which, significantly, related mainly to protection against unfair dismissal. Section 67 varied the minimum periods of notice for agreements not concluded for a specified period or for a period of probation, according to the work to be performed under the agreement, and also according to the length of service with the employer. For employees in managerial posts and travellers a further distinction was made according as they were employed in Europe or elsewhere. The fundamental classification was by the kind of work, into four groups : (1) employees in managerial posts, (2) travellers, chief accountants, agents, etc., (3) clerks and shop assistants and other employees of ordinary grade, (4) subordinate employees. For these groups the minimum periods of notice were ordinarily fixed at 6, 4, and 3 months, and 1 month, respectively ; these were halved if the period of service was less than two years and doubled for employment outside Europe. The Committee of the Chamber of Deputies amended slightly the clauses halving and doubling the periods of notice. The Bill was not passed, but the idea was taken up again in the Italian Bill of 12 December 1912 on employees' contracts. The draft proposed to leave the details to be fixed by administrative regulations ; after amendment by the Superior Labour Council, however, the Bill fixed the periods of notice. The distinction between employment in Europe and elsewhere was dropped altogether, and the classification by the kind of work was simplified, the last two groups being amalgamated ; but, on the other hand, the distinctions according to length of service were made more detailed, employees being classified according as they have been employed less than two years, two to five years, five to ten years, or over ten years, the period of notice being fixed in the last case at ten months. Owing to the war, this Bill was not passed either. But the provisions in question were incorporated in sections 3 to 5 of the Italian Decree of 9 February 1919 on employees, subject to certain limitations as regards longer periods of service and the closing down of the undertaking owing to *force majeure*, and to certain extensions

to cover the case of transference of the business or bankruptcy of the employer. In the earlier Bills the equality of the periods of notice for both parties had been maintained, but in this Decree a difference was made, the minimum period for the employee being fixed at half that for the employer. After the political revolution this Decree was replaced by that of 13 November 1924, in which the minimum period of notice was again made the same for employer and employee.

The Italian law served as a model for most other post-war legislation on employees' contracts, although the classification by type of employment, which had already become less definite even in Italian legislation, was not made in such detail. In section 21 of the Luxemburg Act of 31 October 1919 on the contracts of employment of private employees, section 1 of the Greek Act of 11 March 1920 on periods of notice for private employees, section 20 of the Austrian Employees Act of 11 May 1921, and sections 1 *et seq.* of the German Act of 9 July 1926 on periods of notice for employees, the grouping is not, as in Italian law, by the kind, but only by the period, of service. Section 1 of the Greek Act and section 20 of the Austrian Act even extend this latter idea by forming special groups for employees with a period of service of over ten years. In all these, except the German Act which in general does not restrict the notice to be given by employees, the minimum periods are made twice as long for the employer as for the worker, as in the Italian Decree of 9 February 1919. Section 12 of the Belgian Act of 7 August 1922 on employees' contracts has a similar provision ; it classifies employees by their remuneration, with further special provision only for those who have been employed for over ten years.

As a rule this system of graduating the minimum period of notice is not extended to workers. The period of notice is not usually so long for them as for employees, and in fact they do not demand that it should be, because they can make better use of favourable circumstances if the notice they have to give is short, and in addition a change of employment usually involves less difficulties for them than for employees, whose work is largely intellectual. Some attempt in this direction was made in section 55 of the Italian Bill of 26 November 1902 on contracts of employment, under which an agreement not to observe the prescribed minimum of eight days' notice for the workers was allowed only if the worker had been employed two years. Longer minimum periods for all workers are laid down in section 348, paragraph 2, and section 349

of the Swiss Code of Obligations, if the employment has lasted a year, and in sections 1,159 and 1,159(*a*) of the Austrian General Civil Code as amended to 19 March 1916 if the employment has lasted three months. The graduation by length of service and nature of the work is more marked in the Greek Decree of 16 July 1920 extending to workers the periods of notice for employees.

The Amount of Compensation

The second fundamental principle of French law, that a worker who is dismissed unfairly is entitled to compensation for consequent injury, was not adopted in other countries until comparatively lately and then in a very different form. The injuries caused by unfair dismissal are often not limited to material losses, but also include the agitation and anxiety of finding new employment and the difficulties of becoming used to it. Hence if any provision at all is made for an indemnity, these non-material injuries are also taken into account. But they are difficult to establish, and it is even more difficult to estimate their value. For this reason it is often provided that an indemnity is to be granted in every case, and the amount is fixed by law. But the indemnity can then no longer be regarded purely as compensation for injury and becomes rather a gratuity on discharge (*Abfertigung*), as it is in fact called in Austrian law and the Polish Government Bill. This idea clearly has no direct connection with French law, but is based on two other principles.

The Italian Bill of 12 December 1912 on employees' contracts, as amended by the Superior Labour Council, graduated the periods of notice according to length of service up to a maximum of ten years only. Above this maximum the employer was to pay compensation for dismissal at the rate of one month's wages for each additional year's service up to a maximum of a year's wages; the compensation was to be halved only if the undertaking was closed down for reasons of *force majeure*. This system was adopted in the Employees' Decree of 9 February 1919, which also laid down in sections 6 and 7 that half the compensation for dismissal should be paid if notice was given by the employee himself, and that three-fifths should be paid to his dependants in the event of his death. It is clear that the compensation is here regarded rather as a contribution to old-age and dependants' pensions, on the model of the provision made for civil servants, a view supported by the fact that it is granted only to employees with over ten

years' service. There is a similar intention behind the compensation granted by section 19 of the Luxemburg Act of 31 October 1919 on the contracts of employment of private employees, which is payable only in the event of death and is fixed at three months' wages irrespective of the length of service. The employer is here required to pay the surviving dependants the sum needed for the reorganisation of the household, an idea which is found also in section 83 of the German Bill of 1923 on contracts of employment, but has nothing to do with protection against unfair dismissal.

Another method of approaching the question of compulsory compensation for dismissal is to secure the intervention of the workers' representative bodies in cases of dismissal with a view to preventing unfair dismissals altogether. This subject has already been mentioned in the general survey of the problem. The idea is clearly expressed in section 3(9) of the Austrian Works Councils Act of 15 May 1919 and section 2(6) of the Czechoslovakian Act of 25 February 1920 on works and district councils in the mining industry; it also played an important part in the discussions on the German Works Councils Act of 4 February 1920, but was replaced in sections 84 *et seq.* of this Act by the idea of granting compensation for dismissal. Owing to the complicated origin and ambiguity of this Act, the idea is not clearly expressed and has only recently been given greater emphasis[1]. Sections 88 and 89 of the Soviet Russian Labour Code of 9 November 1922 also provide for the payment of a leaving grant when dismissal by the employer is allowed for certain specified reasons, but may prove unfair to the worker. But as the end of section 88 shows, there is also the idea of a minimum period of notice during which the worker must still be paid his wages, even if he is not employed. This explains why the leaving grant is fixed at two weeks' wages regardless of the nature and length of service, although these factors must obviously affect the injury caused by unfair dismissal.

The principle of compensation for dismissal is more definitely expressed in sections 23 *et seq.* of the Austrian Employees' Act of 11 May 1921, which also adopts the system of graduation by length of service contained in section 87, paragraph 2, of the German Works Councils Act of 4 February 1920. The Austrian Act differs from the German in fixing the amount of the compensation, the sum so fixed being payable even if it is more than the value of the injury inflicted. The German Act, on the contrary,

[1] Cf. MOLITOR, in *Neue Zeitschrift für Arbeitsrecht*, No. 6, pp. 99 *et seq.*

in accordance with the principle of compensation, applies the system of graduation by length of service only to fix an upper limit for the value of the injury. This is moreover in agreement with another principle which has recently found expression in German law — for instance, in section 12 of the Act of 3 May 1909 on motor vehicles — that a maximum liability for compensation must be fixed in order that the person liable may be able to estimate the possible cost. In point of fact, however, there is no substantial difference between Austrian and German law, as in German practice the tendency is, if possible, to evaluate the injury at the statutory maximum[1], while Austrian law allows a reduction of the sum in certain cases in which the employer cannot reasonably be expected to pay the full amount. But in this way the Austrian system succeeds in facilitating and simplifying both settlement out of court and court procedure. Under Austrian law the sums payable for shorter periods of service are naturally somewhat lower than the maxima fixed by German law, which are not exceeded in Austrian law until after twenty years' service.

The Austrian example is followed in section 16 of the Polish Government Bill of 1924 on employees' contracts, although the compensation after less than ten years' service is lower, and in the Italian Employees' Decree of 13 December 1924, which modifies the principle in so far as it provides for a fixed compensation on dismissal of half a month's wages for each complete year of service.

Up to the present the principle of compensation for dismissal has not been extended from salaried employees to all workers, except in German and Soviet Russian law; even in these, as already explained, the idea is not yet clearly expressed, while in Germany the compensation is granted only in undertakings in which there are workers' representative bodies. In sections 148 *et seq.* the German Bill of 1923 on contracts of employment contemplated an extension to all workers; it made dismissal independent of the intervention of the workers' representative bodies[2], and maintained the principle of not fixing the compensation rigidly but only setting an upper limit.

Justifiable Dismissal

In all the more important industrial countries there has thus

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[1] Cf. Kaskel: *op. cit.*, p. 128, note.

[2] Cf. Titze in Potthoff: *Die sozialen Probleme des Betriebes*, pp. 163 *et seq.*; Bewer in *Iherings Jahrbücher*, 74, pp. 159 *et seq.*; and Gueck in Molitor-Gueck-Riezler: *op. cit.*

been an active attempt in both legislation and judicial practice to protect workers and, in particular, salaried employees against unjustified dismissal, and to compensate them for consequent injury. There is however general agreement, except in Soviet Russian law, that no kind of protection should be afforded in case of so-called " extraordinary " dismissal for some important reason. Yet this principle is not so self-evident as is generally assumed. For the decision whether there is an important reason for extraordinary dismissal will depend primarily on the requirements of the employer, while the need for protection against dismissal is determined primarily by the situation and requirements of the worker. This may lead to a certain divergence of interests, especially if the worker is not to blame for the important reason for extraordinary dismissal. Take, for instance, the case of a worker in a confidential post who is suspected of dishonesty that can neither be proved nor disproved. In such a case the employer cannot be expected to continue the contract, but, on the other hand, there is no reason for depriving the worker of compensation for dismissal, as it cannot be proved that he is guilty. French law is still the least restricted in its attitude to such cases, because it makes no hard-and-fast distinction between ordinary and extraordinary dismissal. In Germany Titze[1] has proposed to meet the difficulty by fixing the period of notice for extraordinary dismissal, although making it less than is imposed in other cases by law or contract. It is true that he denies such a need *de lege ferenda*, for at the time he wrote the periods of notice fixed in German law were comparatively short. But with the growing extension in Germany too of the protection against unfair dismissal, this cognate problem will also have to be taken into account.

[1] TITZE: *Handbuch des Handelsrechts*, Vol. 2, p. 707.

The Employment of Children in the Production of Cinematograph Films

The making of films for the cinematograph, in special studios or otherwise, is an industry in which many children, sometimes very young children, are employed. During the past year a number of requests were received by the International Labour Office for information concerning the conditions of labour of such children. In order to reply to these, enquiries had to be made in a number of countries; thus a certain amount of information was collected which was printed from time to time in the Office's weekly publication, Industrial and Labour Information. *These notes, though lacking in completeness, aroused interest; and the First Cinematograph Congress, held in Paris last September and October, asked the Office to make a further, and more exhaustive, survey. Pending the completion of the survey desired by the Congress, it may be interesting to recapitulate what has been said elsewhere about the employment of children in cinematograph studios and the laws regulating it.*

SO FAR as can be ascertained, no systematic enquiry has yet been made into the conditions of child labour in the production of cinematograph films. Little is known about this occupation, and until an enquiry is made the risks run by children, perhaps even the existence of these risks, must be largely a matter for conjecture. It is common knowledge that very young children, even babies, are employed in the production of films, and the Office's enquiries, incomplete as they are, have established the fact that the work is for the most part unregulated by law. Nor is this surprising, as the employment does not come within the scope of any but recent legislation.

Seeing then that very young children and even babies are employed in producing cinematograph films, it is not unreasonable to ask whether there really are risks; if so, what the risks are; how far existing laws are sufficient to meet them; and what should be done to protect the children employed without undue interference in the development of a new and important industry. It is to these questions that any enquiry should seek a reply.

In the light of our insufficient knowledge, to attempt an examination of the conditions of labour would be inadvisable. It is sufficient to say that the interests of two classes of children seem especially to need consideration, namely : (1) babies and very young children, who should be assured against the risk of physical injury, or injury to the nervous system, and (2) children of school age, whose health or morals might suffer from the nature of the employment or the environment in which it is carried on. The education of the second class should not be overlooked, but the risk is probably no greater than in other occupations ; indeed, in some countries (Great Britain, for example) school laws are the only check upon the work of children in film studios. There is a third class of children, the youthful " stars ", often mentioned because more prominent than either of the other two ; they may be disregarded here because their number is small and their needs differ from those of the rank and file.

Conditions of Employment

The little that is known of labour conditions in cinematograph studios is derived from American sources. It is short enough to quote in full. In 1922 a conference was held at Washington of American State and local officials engaged in issuing, or supervising the issue of, child employment permits. Among the officials who addressed the conference was Dr. E. J. Lickley, Assistant Superintendent of Schools and Director of the Compulsory Attendance and Child Welfare Department, Los Angeles, California. Referring to the employment of children in the Californian film studios Dr. Lickley said[1] :

> In California children of any age may work in the production of motion pictures provided they secure permits. About 75 per cent. of all the permits issued are for work in that one industry. It is the largest industry from the point of view of investment in all the South-West. The figures are stupendous. It represents a difficult problem to the child-welfare workers, for several reasons. In the first place children go to work in motion pictures for reasons that are quite different for the most part from the reasons that are usually given for children going into industry. All the parents are obsessed with the idea that their children are all potential stars. That is the first and chief reason they want these children to go to work. Usually the mother or the

[1] United States. Department of Labour, Children's Bureau : *Standards and Problems connected with the Issuance of Employment Certificates.* Washington, Govt. Printing Office, 1923.

father who wants the boy or girl to work in the production of motion pictures is governed by the tremendous idea that there is in the family a little Mary Pickford or a little Charlie Chaplin or a little Douglas Fairbanks, and all that is necessary is that some kind-hearted official issue a permit in order that this undiscovered genius of the silver screen may not be lost to the general public. The juvenile stars of the motion-picture screen have almost all been given their first permits in the issuing office at Los Angeles. We have such stars as Jackie Coogan, Wesley Barry, Mildred Harris, Mary Osborn (known as Little Mary Sunshine), and many others.

The second reason arises from the fact that so many of the children have fathers or mothers engaged in the industry and they are going to live in this motion picture world, the children are going to grow up in it and it will be their occupation. So that they say: "Our children are going to follow this line of work, why shouldn't they begin early? Why shouldn't they start in while they are children?" There is a tremendous demand, so the motion-picture people tell us, all over the world for juvenile pictures.

The third and the smallest group of parents is composed of those who want their children to work for the money it brings to them; those who are not willing to work for themselves but hope that their children may earn fabulous sums as motion picture stars.

It is interesting to note that the very brightest children are the ones who do work in the production of motion pictures. There is no place for the dull boy or girl in this work. You can readily see that it requires brightness even on the part of very small children. Those who work regularly are very small in number; 95 per cent. of all the children who work in the production of motion pictures are intermittent workers.

The law of California provides for very little supervision of this work, but by administrative means the Board of Education has undertaken to give these children some educational advantages; so we require every child under the age of 16 to be under the personal supervision of a teacher or tutor who has the qualifications of a public school teacher. All these children must spend part of each day with these teachers, and the teachers are paid by the moving picture industry but work under the supervision of the Department of Compulsory Education, to which they report daily. The cost of the education of these children is a justifiable charge on the industry.

The question has come up many times as to the effect of this work on the child's education. What does it do and what is the result of working in motion pictures, particularly in the cases of the large number who work 5 or 6, 8 or 10, 50 or 60 days a year? All who are familiar with school work know that two weeks' non-attendance is serious if it is consecutive; four weeks is almost fatal. We require every teacher to send in to the Department of Compulsory Education at the end of each term a duplicate card of every child who works in motion pictures for five days or more, and check them carefully. When we started this system we thought it would prevent those who were failing in their school work from going into moving pictures, but to our great surprise the average child who worked in motion pictures was doing better work in school than the children who were not working. You can see how it is; the brightest and the best children are taken out of school; they would get along anyway. They are not the retarded or backward children, they are the brightest.

But the work has some undesirable results. Probably the greatest evil is the fact that these children live in an unreal world ; not the unreal world of fairyland, not the unreal world of the stories we tell to children, which is normal and natural, but they live in an unreal world like little old people.

If you have ever seen motion pictures made you will realise what I mean. On the screen you see the picture of the Colosseum at Rome or some old cathedral. That is taken from some small set represented by the size of an average room. All the rest is skeleton work. It looks impressive on the screen, but the set and the surroundings are often cheap and tawdry. These children are living in an unreal world ; they become sophisticated very early ; they become *blasé*. They are not really children ; they are really little old men and women who have grown old prematurely.

Among the officials who took part in the discussion which followed Dr. Lickley's remarks was Miss Jeanie V. Minor, Secretary of the New York Child Labour Committee. Miss Minor appears to have given some attention to this subject, as in an address delivered at Toronto in October 1924 she refers to the employment of children in cinematograph studios and the need for laws to regulate it. Though her remarks were intended to refer more particularly to the United States, they may be applied to the industry wherever found. Speaking of laws to restrict the employment of children in cinematograph studios, she says :

This need is especially evident in view of the fact that so many of the studios are moving east and settling in Illinois, in New York, in New Jersey and elsewhere, and that wherever they come with their fantastic entourage a little world of shams and glittering unrealities clusters about each studio and at the beckon of the casting director swarms of children press eagerly at the gates.

In any discussion involving a legislative curb on this kind of work for children one is told that the work is far easier than in the legitimate drama, because of the long intervals between sets, the healthy open-air scenes, the fact that little or no work is done at night and so on. But what of the exposure to rain and snow in these open-air scenes ? What of exhaustion from the long waits between sets, usually with no proper provision for food or rest ? What of " Kleig eyes ", that dread foe of tender eyes exposed pitilessly to the murderous glare of Kleig lights ? What of the effect of the unreal world, peopled by unreal characters, swept by unreal, simulated emotions ? What of these on the minds of children ? Above all, what of the use of tiny infants in " close-ups " and of their being forced, by fair means or foul, to cry bitterly at the necessary moment ?

It is not claimed that the two reports just quoted establish the case against the employment of children in film studios. Their purpose was to call attention to the existence of certain dangers and the need for reform. They indicate that the greatest danger is found in the environment of the studio and its possible

bad effect on the impressionable mind of the child. They show that the eyesight may suffer from the powerful lights used and the health from outdoor scenes, and hint that tiny infants are deliberately ill treated. Whether this is the case remains to be discovered.

Existing restrictions will next be examined.

Regulation of Employment

In the course of its enquiries into the employment of children in cinematograph studios the International Labour Office secured information about the following countries: Australia, Austria, Cuba, Finland, France, Germany, Greece, Great Britain, Italy, Latvia, Norway, Sweden, Switzerland, and the United States[1]. Where the work is definitely regulated the regulation is summarised below; the following are omitted either because there are no studios or because there are so few that no question of the employment of children in film production has arisen: Australia, Cuba, Finland, Greece, Latvia, and Norway.

Austria. In Austria the employment is regulated by the provisions of a law of 19 December 1918 relating to the employment of children in public exhibitions. By " children " is meant boys and girls under 14 years of age. These must not be employed or otherwise engaged in public exhibitions or performances. But the District Educational Authorities may allow exemptions in the interests of art, education, or science, provided the sections of the law relating to night work, and employment on Sundays and holidays, are observed.

France. In France the law relating to the employment of children in public performances does not cover cinematograph studios. No direct control exists and children of any age may be employed. The matter has not passed unnoticed and the amendment of the law is the object of a Bill now before the Legislature. This measure aims at modifying the provisions of the Code of Labour and Social Insurance which relate to the employment of children in theatres and itinerant performances, and at bringing them into line with present-day needs. The reforms proposed are the work of a Committee appointed by the Ministry

[1] For information concerning the following countries the International Labour Office is indebted to the Marchioness of Aberdeen and Temair, President of the International Council of Women: Australia, Cuba, Finland, Greece, Latvia, Norway, and Sweden.

of Public Instruction, upon which the following were represented: the Ministries of Labour and of Public Instruction and Fine Arts, the Prefecture of the Police, the directors of theatrical and cinematograph establishments, and the dramatic profession. This Committee unanimously condemned the abuse of child employment in theatres and cinematograph establishments. The matter is referred to thus in the report drawn up by them for the Chamber of Deputies[1]:

> Since the promulgation of the law now in force the cinematograph industry has been born and popularised. It is in no way foreseen by the present law and the employment of children in film studios is subject to no restrictions. We see films everywhere with parts taken by children of the most tender age. The representatives of the cinematograph industry themselves, when giving evidence before the Committee appointed by the Ministry of Public Instruction, could not but deplore the abuse of films in which children are employed. The methods employed in the production of these films, and in particular the intensity of the lights essential to secure brilliancy in the pictures, re-act in the most serious manner on the nervous system, and especially upon the sight, of the actors. Even adults suffer acutely from this. What then must be the noxious effect of these lights upon the sight and the nervous system of children whose organs are still undeveloped?

The Bill proposes to forbid the employment of children under 15 years of age in (among other occupations) undertakings for the production of cinematograph films. It would, however, allow exemptions to be granted by the Minister of Public Instruction and Fine Arts in Paris, or by the Prefects in Departments, permitting the employment, as an exception, of one or more children in theatres or undertakings for the production of cinematograph films, but only for determined plays or films.

As was stated above, compulsory education laws operate to prevent the indiscriminate employment of children in this as in other occupations. The law in France obliges children to attend school from 6 until 13 years of age, but a certificate of proficiency may be gained at 11 years which excuses a child from further attendance.

Germany. In Germany two measures regulate this employment, one a Police Order of 30 June 1924, applying to the City of Berlin, and the other an Act of 31 July 1925, amending the Act of 30 March 1903 which regulates the employment of children in industrial undertakings[2]. The 1925 Act is of general application.

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[1] No. 2032, Chambre des Députés, annexe au procès-verbal de la séance du 5 novembre 1925, p. 3.

[2] Cf. INTERNATIONAL LABOUR OFFICE: *Legislative Series*, 1924, Ger. 11, and 1925, Ger. 5.

The Berlin Order absolutely forbids the employment of infants under 3 years old in a cinematograph studio and no exemption is allowed. From 3 years until the time they have completed their compulsory schooling (this appears to be 14 years) children may be employed with a permit from the Police. The conditions for obtaining this permit are severe. It is not issued if there is reason to fear that the nature of the scenes in which the child is to take part are likely to have an injurious effect from a moral, mental, or physical point of view, or will over-excite his imagination. An exact statement as to the studio, or other place where the film is to be taken, must be made when the permit is applied for, and if ten or more children are employed a child welfare official, recognised by the authorities, must be entrusted with their supervision while they are waiting for the work to begin and during any breaks. Special rooms must be provided for children to be used for changing and waiting ; these rooms must be heated and properly ventilated, and no adults (other than parents or supervisors) are to be allowed to enter. The owner of the studio must see that the children are properly cared for in these rooms, and they must be permanently supervised by a suitable person. Application for a permit to employ children must be made at least a fortnight in advance and the following particulars must be given : an accurate description of the film and its essential features, the exact nature of the scenes in which the children are to take part, the manner in which they take part, and how they are to be clothed. If a child takes an individual part his age must be stated and the consent of his parents and schoolmaster obtained. Finally, an exact statement must be made as to the place where the film is to be taken.

No child who is liable to compulsory school attendance may be employed during school hours. An exemption to this provision is only allowed in the case of a film taken out of doors and it is only applicable to children playing individual parts. The written consent of the child's schoolmaster is essential.

No child may be employed for more than six hours, including time of attendance. Nor may a child be employed before morning school or after 8 p.m.

There is an interesting provision relating to lights. It forbids the employment of any but frosted or mercury vapour lamps in connection with a film in which children are taking part. Furthermore, these lamps must not be kept alight for more than ten minutes at a time.

The law is enforced by the Police and the industrial inspection officers are allowed free access to all parts of the undertakings at any time. The Police must be notified 24 hours before the taking of the film begins, and the addresses of the children taking part in it, and the schools they attend, must be communicated.

The 1925 Act differs from the 1924 Order only in allowing the employment of children under three years old when the interests of art or science make this desirable. The authorities must first be satisfied that adequate precautions will be taken for the expert supervision of the child for whom permission is given and for the protection of its health. The Act applies to the producer's own children. Unlike the Berlin Order, it has no special provisions as to the employment of lights.

Great Britain. The Home Office states that in Great Britain there is no special legislation in force dealing expressly with the employment of children in cinematograph studios. It is believed that such employment is not at all common in the country. The Department points out that the employment of juvenile film performers would not be regarded as coming under the Factory and Workshops Acts, nor is it thought that a film studio could be held to be an " industrial undertaking " within the meaning of the Employment of Women, Young Persons and Children Act, 1920. The existing law regulating the performance of children in theatres and similar places of amusement does not appear to be capable of including performances before the camera.

There are, however, certain provisions in the Education Act, 1921, relating generally to the employment of children under 14 years of age and giving local authorities powers to prohibit the employment of children in any specified occupation, or to regulate employment generally. The general effect of these laws is that :

(1) No child under 12 years may be employed, except so far as the employment of children by their parents may be permitted by local by-laws ;

(2) A child between 12 and 14 years may not be employed on any Sunday for more than two hours, or on any day before 6 a.m. or after 8 p.m. ;

(3) A child between 12 and 14 years may not be employed on any day before the close of school. But permission may be granted to employ such children before school in specific occupations if precautions are taken to safeguard their interests. Employment before 9 a.m. must be limited to one hour and the child

must not be employed for more than an hour in the afternoon.

Practically all local authorities have now made by-laws. So far as the Home Office is aware no special notice has been taken by any local authority of the employment of children in film studios; such employment would be subject to the ordinary restrictions indicated above.

Italy. In Italy a law of 10 December 1925, relating to the protection of children, forbids children under 15 years old to take part as actors or in any other way in the preparation of films for the cinematograph. But permission may be given by way of exception for the employment of one or more children in the production of special films. Such permission is only granted if the authorities are satisfied that due precautions are taken to safeguard the health and morals of the children, and the written consent of a parent or guardian must be obtained.

Sweden. The Office is informed that there are no laws to regulate the employment of children in the production of films. Children sometimes appear in Swedish films, but no increase in this employment has been noted. The work is regulated by the laws applying to child labour generally, which in their present form are not considered sufficient to protect children employed in cinematograph studios. For this reason the Social Department has under consideration a measure intended to regulate the conditions in which children may be employed in this work.

United States. The production of cinematograph films in the United States is almost entirely centred round the city of Los Angeles, in the State of California, where about 90 per cent. of American films are produced. Most of the remainder are produced in the city of New York; other States having children engaged in the industry are New Jersey, Illinois, Pennsylvania, and Michigan.

Only California and New York have specific laws applying to children in the industry; in other States the ordinary child labour laws apply. In both California and New York the employment of children in the industry comes under the supervision of local officials in connection with compulsory school attendance laws; in neither State does it come within the scope of the work of the Department of Labour.

The following provisions are found in the laws of California and New York State:

In *California* no child under 16 years old may be employed without a permit from the Labour Commissioner. Before granting

this permit the Labour Commissioner must be satisfied as to the environment in which the child is to work, that his education is not being neglected and that his health is good. The child must be accompanied by a parent or some other relative. Children must receive four hours schooling during the working day from a certified teacher selected by the Board of Education and paid by the studio. In this connection it may be mentioned that the International Labour Office has been informed by the Motion Picture Producers and Distributors of America that they contemplate the inclusion of a thoroughly equipped and permanent schoolroom in each studio.

A child applying for a permit has to undergo a medical examination by a physician of the Compulsory Child Welfare Department of the Los Angeles Board of Education.

The hours of work are limited to eight daily, and as four of these are devoted to school instruction the actual working time cannot exceed four hours. An official of the Motion Pictures Producers of America informs the International Labour Office that the actual time before the camera is rarely more than an hour and a half and may be as little as five minutes.

In *New York State* the employment of children under 16 years in the production of films for the cinematograph is forbidden. A permit for such employment may be granted by the Mayor and must be renewed weekly. The local police or the Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Children enforce the regulation.

Thus it is found that in the countries whose legislation has been considered special laws exist only in Germany, California, and New York State; but it must not be forgotten that Germany and the United States are precisely the two countries in which the film industry is the most flourishing. In Italy the employment is specifically mentioned in a law covering a number of other occupations; in Austria the position is practically the same as in Italy, though the employment is not specially mentioned; in Sweden and in the majority of American States the ordinary child labour laws apply; in France and Great Britain the employment is not regulated at all, but a modified control may be exercised by school attendance laws or municipal regulations.

If attention be confined to laws which directly regulate the employment of children in studios, it is seen that these fall into two classes. In the first are the laws which forbid the employment of children altogether but allow exemptions for special films in

the interests of art, education, or science; such are the laws of Austria and Italy. In the second are those which allow the employment of children in film production generally and rely upon strict permit conditions to prevent abuses; in this class the laws of Germany and California should be placed. In only one case (Berlin) is there an absolute age limit, evidently designed to prevent the employment of babies.

Seeing that the employment of children is nowhere forbidden altogether, and assuming that this is either unnecessary or impossible, the problem is narrowed to one of employment permits. This brief survey may be concluded by taking the laws as a whole and examining the conditions upon which permits are granted for the employment of children in studios. They are as follows:

Absolute minimum age. In Berlin three years; no absolute minimum age in other places.

Age up to which permits required. Austria, 14 years; Germany, termination of compulsory school age (apparently 14 years); California, 16 years; Italy, 15 years; New York State, 16 years.

Medical tests. In California the child must be examined by a physician of the Compulsory Child Welfare Department of the Los Angeles Board of Education; in Germany and in Italy before issuing a permit the authorities must be satisfied that the child's health will not be injured.

Hours of work. In Germany children may not be employed for more than six hours daily (including time of attendance), nor before morning school or after 8 p.m.; in California the hours are limited to eight daily and must include four hours of instruction. Children may not begin work in the studios before 8 a.m. nor may they work after 5 p.m.

Education. In Germany the child continues to attend school and employment is not generally permitted during school hours; in California the child does not attend the public schools but receives instruction from special teachers in a place attached to the studio. These teachers are furnished by the Board of Education and are paid by the studio. Instruction lasts for four hours daily.

Morals. In Germany a permit will not be issued if there is reason to suppose that the film in which the child is to take part, or the actions to be performed by him, will have an injurious effect on his morals, or will over-excite his imagination. The Berlin Order provides that the child must be accompanied by a parent or guardian and there are strict provisions for waiting rooms and for the superintendence of children; in California the

Labour Commissioner must be satisfied as to the environment in which the child is to work, and the child must be accompanied by a parent or some relative; in Italy the authorities must be satisfied that the child's morals will be safeguarded and the written consent of a parent or guardian must be obtained to the employment of a child.

Health of children already employed. Precise regulations are only found in Germany, where the authorities must be satisfied as to the exact nature of the scenes in which children are to take part, the manner in which they take part, and their clothing.

Injurious lights. In Berlin the lamps used must be of a special pattern and must not be kept alight for more than ten minutes at a time; elsewhere there are no regulations.

Enforcement. In Germany and in Italy the law is enforced in the same way as in industry. In California and New York State the work is outside the scope of the labour authorities and the law is enforced by the school attendance officers.

What then is the position in the matter of the employment of children in film production ? It seems to be this. The enquirer is confronted with an occupation outside the scope of most laws, an occupation which can, and does, employ children of very tender years. The fact that the labour of these children is in a large measure outside the law may cause apprehension for two reasons. First, whatever a film may be on the screen, its making is carried out in an atmosphere of shams and unrealities, which cannot but react unfavourably on the impressionable mind of a young child; secondly, there are physical risks, due principally to the lights used, that may warrant the occupation being classed as dangerous. Except in Germany the employment is unregulated or regulation is only partial, that is, reliance is placed upon compulsory school attendance laws or upon laws regulating child performers generally. As yet the industry is considerable only in California, but it has made a good start in some European countries. It already owes much to the employment of children, and such employment will continue; it is not suggested here that it ought to be stopped. But the work should be made safe for children, who ought to be protected against all possible risks. The nature of these risks, and the measure of protection required, have still to be ascertained.

The New Japanese Act on the Conciliation of Labour Disputes

Reference has already been made in the Review *to the various important labour laws that came into force in Japan on 1 July 1926, and an account was given of the Health Insurance Act, which is perhaps the chief and the most interesting of these laws*[1]. *Next in importance and hardly less interesting is the Act on the Conciliation of Labour Disputes, a new experiment which is made more significant by the simultaneous repeal of those parts of the Public Peace Police Act which were considered obstacles to the workers' right to strike and the freedom of trade unions. The new Act provides for the setting up of an* ad hoc *conciliation board, including representatives of both parties to the dispute, in all cases of collective disputes concerning conditions of work between workers and their own employers. The findings of the board do not bind the parties to the dispute, but provision is made for thorough enquiry and for publication of the gist of the report of the board, so that the proceedings are in effect an appeal to public opinion in the matter of conciliation. In view of the increase in the number and seriousness of industrial disputes in recent years, the new measure, and in particular its tacit recognition of the workers' right to strike, is an important experiment in dealing with labour conditions in modern industry, the effects of which will be watched with much interest*[2].

The Origin of the Act

THE development of modern industry has brought in its train an increase of industrial disputes in Japan. Generally speaking it may be stated that the nature and method of disputes have

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[1] Cf. *International Labour Review*, Vol. XIV, No. 6, Dec. 1926, pp. 861-871 : "The New Japanese Act on Health Insurance".

[2] The main sources used in the preparation of this article are : *Rodo Jiho* (Labour Gazette ; published by the Bureau of Social Affairs), July 1926, pp. 2-7 ; *Shakai Seisaku Jiho* (Social Reform ; published by the Kyocho Kai), August 1926, pp. 35-55 : article by Y. Kitahara, an official in the Bureau of Social Affairs ; *Kaizo* (Reconstruction ; a monthly journal on economic and labour questions), July 1926, pp. 82-111 : article by Professor G. Suyehiro ; International Labour Office : *Legislative Series*, 1926, Jap. 3 ; etc.

changed with the introduction of modern industry in this country. Under the feudal system, in the days when manufacture of goods, as the etymology of the word suggests, was really " hand-making " instead of a mechanical process, and when production depended, not upon a capitalistic system of factory organisation, but on individual craftsmanship and home industry, or small guilds of craftsmen at most, " labour disputes " as the term is understood to-day did not exist. Individual bargaining prevailed then, whereas now, with the growth of a distinct class of wage-earning workers, the situation has changed. Collective bargaining is now replacing individual bargaining, though the spread of the former is not as rapid as might be supposed, owing to the tardy development of trade unionism in Japan[1].

Nevertheless, the increase of labour disputes seems as a general rule to be an inevitable phenomenon accompanying the expansion of industry. Statistics show that in 1914 and 1915 there were only 50 and 64 cases respectively of disputes (including strikes, lockouts, and " ca' canny " strikes) in all branches of Japanese industry (i.e. including mining, transport, textiles, metal, shipbuilding, etc.). The number of workers involved in disputes was also comparatively small in the early years, but with the expansion of industrial activities during the war the number of cases increased rapidly, reaching the peak in 1918 and 1919 with 417 and 497 cases respectively of disputes, involving 66,457 workers in 1918 and 63,137 workers in 1919. The numbers then decreased slightly with the cessation of hostilities and restoration of normal conditions, but up to the present the number of industrial disputes registered has not really decreased appreciably[2].

It is needless to say that the spread of disputes has serious effects, causing damage to industry and economic loss to society. For example, the aggregate number of days lost by the disputes

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[1] On 30 June 1925 there were 494 unions with 234,698 members (*Rodo Tokei Yoran*, 1926, p. 9).

[2] Strikes (" ca' canny " and other) and lockouts in the last ten years in Japan:

Year	Number	Workers involved
1916	108	8,413
1917	398	57,309
1918	417	66,457
1919	497	63,137
1920	282	36,371
1921	246	58,225
1922	250	41,503
1923	270	36,259
1924	333	54,526
1925	292	39,412

was 1,173,177 in 1921; 447,016 in 1922; 421,873 in 1923 and 638,363 in 1924. Only in 1925 did the number fall to 351,055.

The spread of disputes in Japan has not been confined to industry. For many years the question of agricultural tenancy had been growing more acute; the number of disputes on tenancy conditions in agricultural districts began to assume such serious dimensions towards 1920 that the Government appointed a commission to investigate the agricultural tenancy system. After a careful study of the nature of the disputes a Bill was presented by the Government to the Extraordinary Session of the Diet in 1924. The Bill was adopted and the Conciliation of Tenancy Disputes Act came into force on 1 December 1924[1].

The experience gained by the enforcement of this Act and the measure of success achieved by it in the sphere of agriculture may be considered as the direct inducement toward legislative action of a similar nature in the industrial sphere, although naturally many other factors have indirectly influenced the realisation of the attempt. As early as 1921, when disputes involving over 16,000 workers broke out at the Kawasaki Dock Yards, no means of conciliation were in sight and the dispute lasted more than thirty days; settlement was finally brought about by the intervention of the local authorities. In 1922, when the tramway workers of Osaka struck, for several days the tramway system of the greatest city of the Far East was paralysed. As a matter of fact, during recent years, strikes involving more than 5,000 workers or lasting more than thirty days are no longer rare exceptions in Japan[2]. Though in a number of these cases rupture would seem inevitable, it is none the less obvious that frequently misinformation or lack of mutual understanding leads to a dispute with grave consequences. Thus the need for some system of conciliation, mediation, or arbitration through legislative channels began to be keenly felt.

The idea of legislation on conciliation in industrial disputes was mooted at an early stage by the Bureau of Social Affairs, even prior to the enactment of the Conciliation of Tenancy Disputes Act. As far back as June 1923, the Japanese press reported that the Bureau was engaged in drafting a Bill to be introduced in

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[1] Cf. *International Labour Review*, Vol. XI, No. 3, March 1925, pp. 381-388: "A New Method of Tenancy Disputes Adjustment in Japan".

[2] Disputes which lasted more than 30 days: 1 in 1919, 2 in 1920, 2 in 1921, 5 in 1922, 2 in 1924, etc. Disputes involving more than 5,000 workers: 4 in 1919, 1 in 1920, 3 in 1921, 1 in 1922, 2 in 1924, etc.

Parliament at the end of the year[1]. However, the actual presentation of the Bill was considerably delayed for various reasons, and it had to be examined by the Council of the Bureau of Social Affairs, the Administration Investigation Commission (*Gyosei Chosa Kai*), the Legislative Bureau of the Cabinet, etc. Modifications of the draft as prepared by the Bureau of Social Affairs were made in the course of examination by these various bodies, and finally the 1926 (Spring) session of the Diet adopted the Bill, which became the Labour Disputes Conciliation Act and came into operation on 1 July 1926.

The Significance of the Act

The fact that Japan, by the introduction of the law on conciliation in industrial disputes, has started a new experiment in dealing with labour disputes, is in itself interesting. But the enactment of this law has been rendered particularly significant from the point of view of labour legislation by the repeal, at the date of coming into force of the Conciliation Act, of all the parts of the Public Peace Police Act which had hitherto been alleged by critics to constitute obstacles to the exercise of the workers' right to strike.

In view of the unusual importance attached to this combined legislation, a brief explanation of the repealed parts of the Police Act will be necessary before giving details of the Conciliation Act.

The Public Peace Police Act was promulgated in 1900. Objections have been raised incessantly by trade unionists of Japan since, and even before, the enactment of this law, specially to section 17 of the Act which contained provisions of serious import in connection with strike action, and to section 30 which provided for penalties for infringement of section 17. Section 17 was worded in part as follows:

> Neither violence nor intimidation nor slander in public with any of the following objects shall be committed against others, nor shall instigation or incitement be committed against others with the objects referred to in (ii) below:
>
> (i) To make others join or prevent them from joining associations formed for the purpose of combined action concerning the conditions of or the remuneration for work.
>
> (ii) To make employers discharge workers or refuse applications for employment or to make workers stop their work or refuse a request for employment as workers.
>
> (iii) To coerce the other party to consent to given conditions of or remuneration for work.

[1] Cf. *Industrial and Labour Information*, Vol. VII, p. 398.

It is not within the scope of the present article to discuss the merits of this law, or to show how its application has or has not hindered the progress of trade unionism and collective bargaining, by enumerating the arrests made in virtue of the section just quoted. Suffice it to recall that some bitter complaints about this law have been made more than once at the International Labour Conference. The Japanese Workers' Delegate at the Washington Conference of 1919 criticised it as "a weapon to prevent the organisation of trade unions" and declared further:

> All intelligent classes in Japan admit that this section 17 is now one of the worst laws of the country. Even our progressive capitalists feel that it should be abolished and that labour should be allowed freely to organise[1].

In a country where national legislation does not regulate wages and other conditions of work but leaves them as a rule to be settled by free contract, it is by individual or collective bargaining of the parties concerned that these conditions are agreed upon. Consequently, as long as workers are not organised or their union is weak and insignificant, they are in a disadvantageous position. This would be specially true if there were a law tending to restrict their action in bargaining for better conditions of labour. Japanese labour legislation has hitherto aimed at the protection of the weaker elements of the working population. Thus, for example, the factory and mining laws regulate in minute detail the hours of work, rest periods, night labour, safety, etc. of women and young workers, but, generally speaking, the protective provisions do not apply to adult male workers[2]. Assuming the equality of individuals, Japanese labour legislation has left the matter of conditions of labour of male workers in general to free bargaining by the parties concerned, whereas now the question arises whether this is entirely in accord with the exigencies of the fast-expanding Japanese industries. The need for some form of conciliation machinery becomes acute when the workers' organisations are not well developed, and when at the same time disputes are growing both in number and in intensity, causing loss to society and damage to industry.

It was at any rate under these circumstances that the conciliation law was proposed. It was obvious that in establishing statu-

[1] Proceedings of the International Labour Conference, First Annual Meeting, Washington, 1919, p. 160.

[2] There are of course exceptions, the most important being the provisions for compensation for industrial accidents, which are enforced irrespective of the sex of the victim.

tory procedure for arbitration or conciliation, which must assume the equality of the parties in dispute, neither party must be handicapped by partial legislation. Arbitration and conciliation both presuppose that the parties in dispute will weigh the advantages of mutual concession or compromise and accept an impartial settlement in preference to continuing the conflict. Only therefore by allowing equal opportunity both in the dispute and in the conciliation procedure can the object of the law be attained. If a certain law constitutes a hindrance to the free action of one or other of the parties to the dispute, its existence will be prejudicial to the satisfactory functioning of an arbitration law.

The Government of Japan submitted to the Diet at its last (1925-1926) session the Bill to amend the Police Act, together with the Bill for conciliation in industrial disputes, the two being discussed in conjunction as inseparable. Both Bills were adopted, and came into force simultaneously on 1 July 1926 : the former removing the cause of complaint as to legal hindrances to strike action, and the latter placing the worker on an equal footing with the employer in disputes. Thus this " combined legislation " amounts virtually to the recognition of the workers' rights in disputes.

In justice to those who have claimed the importance of maintaining the Police Act intact, it has to be noted that the terms of the Act in question have been held to constitute no essential menace to strikers. It has also been admitted that in recent years the authorities have taken care not to apply its provisions to industrial disputes. Such being the case, the repeal of sections 17 and 30 of the Police Act may mean but little in form, but the moral significance of this action can hardly be denied. On the question of whether or not the " workers' right to strike " has been recognised by this legislation, the Government made certain reserves during the discussion in Parliament, but the Prime Minister made in this connection the significant statement that " *the attempt of the workers to carry through their claims by means of strikes is not a matter to be suppressed* "[1]. It is then clearly the spirit rather than the form of the legislation which is of real importance in the present case.

Professor Suyehiro, an eminent authority on labour laws in Japan, who had much to do with the drafting of the two Bills in question, has said with reference to this legislation :

Now at last we leave behind the age in which labour disputes have

[1] Minutes of the House of Commons, No. 14, p. 365.

been indiscriminately condemned. We enter upon a new epoch in which freedom in disputes is established, as a matter of principle, on behalf of workers[1].

The Scope of the Act

The scope of application of the new Conciliation Act is defined in section 1 which states that :

> If a labour dispute occurs in any of the undertakings specified by the Act[2] the administrative authority may set up a conciliation board in accordance with the request of any of the parties concerned. . . . If a labour dispute occurs in an undertaking other than those specified in the Act, the administrative authority may set up a conciliation board at the request of both the parties concerned.

Thus it is clear that the Act applies to " labour disputes ", but no definition of this term exists anywhere in the Act. In defining the scope of the Act it is therefore necessary to consider what constitutes a labour dispute. The definition of the term given by the Bureau of Social Affairs as the result of careful examination is that it is " a collective dispute concerning conditions of work between workers and their employer or employers "[3]. It will be useful to reproduce here the main outlines of the reasoning of the Bureau of Social Affairs on this point in order clearly to understand how far the Act applies.

First of all, the word " labour dispute " suggests immediately a strike or a lockout. However, it must be understood that there are numerous disputes which do not result in either. Statistics show that in Japan a very large number of cases terminate without giving rise to a strike or lockout[4]. Such cases are perhaps even more numerous than actual strikes and lockouts, and yet, according

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[1] Cf. Prof. Suyehiro : " Analysis of the Labour Disputes Arbitration Act ". in *Kaizo*, July 1926, p. 83.

[2] The undertakings enumerated in section 1 include all important public utility works or state enterprises, including : railways, trams, transport by ship for the general public ; postal, telegraphic, and telephone services ; supply of gas, electricity, and water ; other industries either directly connected with the above industries or affecting the daily life of the public in general ; the manufacture or repair of munitions and warships under the direct management of the Army or the Navy.

[3] *Rodo Jiho*, July 1926, p. 2.

[4] Disputes which did not result in a strike or lockout :

Year	Disputes	Workers involved
1921	650	112,664
1922	334	44,406
1923	377	32,555
1924	600	39,521
1925	523	48,645

to the interpretation of the Bureau of Social Affairs, if a dispute occurs the Act will apply to it equally even if neither strike nor lockout has actually begun.

Secondly, that the Act applies to collective and not to individual disputes becomes clear when we examine the manner in which the conciliation board is to be established. As explained later, the Act specifies that the board is to consist of three representatives of the workers, three of the employers, and three neutral members. Obviously, the constitution of such a board is out of the question if the case involves only one worker and his employer.

Thirdly, according to the same authority, the only disputes covered by the Act are "labour disputes"[1], i.e. disputes concerning conditions of work such as wages, hours, factory accommodation, etc. In other words, a dispute arising from a difference of opinion on a political issue is outside the scope of the Act.

Fourthly, the labour dispute within the meaning of the Act must be a dispute between workers and their *own* employers. Consequently, in the case of a " sympathetic strike ", i.e. a strike organised by workers of a certain factory in order to support a strike by workers in another, the secondary strike will not be considered a labour dispute within the meaning of the Act.

In short, in order to apply the Act a dispute has to be a collective dispute concerning conditions of work between workers and their own employers, and if a dispute falls within the scope of this definition the Act will be applied. An agricultural tenancy dispute is similar in many ways to a labour dispute, but it is after all a dispute between a landowner and the tenants who cultivate his land. It is not a labour dispute in the strict sense and is covered by the Conciliation of Tenancy Disputes Act, while in a dispute between a farmer and the labourers employed by him the Labour Disputes Conciliation Act will apply.

The Conciliation Board

Characteristics

According to section 8 of the Act, the conciliation board is a body to make the investigations and enquiries necessary for the solution of a labour dispute in order to bring about conciliation.

Thus the object of the system is to settle a dispute amicably

[1] *Rodo Sogi.*

by finding out the facts of the dispute and suggesting terms of conciliation.

The board is set up specially for each separate case. In this respect the Japanese conciliation board for labour disputes differs from the permanent boards often found in European countries. Even in Japan the Conciliation of Tenancy Disputes Act may be considered to have provided permanent boards because under it disputes are referred to the local court of justice. The new Japanese conciliation board also differs from many others in that its findings are not binding upon the parties concerned, whereas the laws of other countries sometimes provide that if the attempt at conciliation in the first instance fails, the case is to be referred to an arbitrator or arbitration board, whose award is binding on the parties to the dispute. In Japan the parties are free either to accept or to reject the findings of the board, which are not in the nature of a " decision " but amount merely to an " opinion ", at least in form.

Another characteristic of the board is that it is a public and not a private organ. It is set up by the administrative authority for a specific dispute, in compliance with the Act. In other countries arbitration and conciliation boards are occasionally set up either locally or nationally by agreement between trade unions and employers; such private boards are practically non-existent in Japan and the present Act does not therefore assume that they exist or consider the possibility of the dispute being settled by non-official machinery.

The setting up of a conciliation board under the Act is either compulsory or voluntary according to the nature of the undertaking in which the dispute occurs. Roughly speaking, the establishment of a conciliation board is compulsory if the dispute is in an undertaking which affects the public welfare; otherwise it is voluntary. It is perhaps necessary to deal with this point in some detail.

In modern society it is difficult to name any industry or trade which does not affect the public welfare in some way or other. For instance, either the manufacture of food, or the textile industry which provides us with clothing materials, may be said to affect more or less directly the daily life of the public. And yet the Act does not include either of these industries within the category of the " undertakings affecting the public welfare ". A careful examination of the undertakings enumerated under section 1[1]

[1] Cf. footnote 2 on page 263.

shows that the undertakings included by the Act in the compulsory category have certain common characteristics. They are, first of all, undertakings which are generally monopolised, e.g. railways, tramways; postal, telephone, and telegraph services; supply of gas, water, and electricity; etc. In the second place, they are undertakings which provide services but cannot accumulate their products. The manufacture of food, clothing, etc. is not as a rule monopolised; moreover, the products can be accumulated in either line of industry and consumed only when needed. The case of the supply of electricity, water, and the like, is totally different. The stoppage of tramcars or of the gas or water supply causes direct inconvenience to the daily life of the public, and the law must intervene so as to minimise the inconvenience and consequent social loss.

Such being the motive of this part of the legislation, an undertaking for the supply of gas, water, or electricity, or for transport or communication, such as a railway, tramway, telephone or telegraph service, etc., need not come within the scope of the Act if it is solely for private use, belonging, for example, to a private company. It may be recalled here that the Act covers the "manufacture or repair of munitions and warships under the direct management of the Army or the Navy". Manufacture of munitions, etc. under private management is therefore excluded from the compulsory system.

According to the Act, when a dispute occurs in an undertaking affecting the public welfare, such as those mentioned above, or in the manufacture or repair of munitions or warships under the Army or the Navy, the administrative authority is empowered to set up a conciliation board at the request of either of the parties in dispute, and, if it deems necessary, may set up a board even if there is no request from either party. In the case of a dispute in an undertaking other than those mentioned, however, the administrative authority is not empowered to set up a conciliation board unless both the parties to the dispute request it. In each case the request has to be made in writing, stating certain particulars which are specified by an Imperial Ordinance[1].

[1] Section 4 of the Ordinance for the administration of the Labour Disputes Conciliation Act reads as follows:

"The request for the setting up of a conciliation board shall be made in writing, stating the following particulars:

(i) name and place of the establishment where the dispute has occurred;

(ii) approximate number of workers involved in the dispute;

Composition

A brief reference has been made above to the manner in which the board is composed. It consists of nine members. The parties to the dispute choose six members, each party selecting three, and these six members then select three other members from among persons who have no direct connection with the dispute. Membership of the board has to be confirmed by the administrative authority by formal " appointment "[1]. Once formally appointed, a member cannot decline his appointment without " reasonable cause ". For example, a person may dislike serving on such a board because he fears that this may either make him unpopular with the workers or provoke the displeasure of the employer. Refusal to serve on a board for such cause will be disallowed (section 3 of the Act).

The method of selection of the members is laid down in section 4 of the Act. First of all, when the administrative authority proposes to set up a conciliation board, it must notify the parties concerned (section 2). Upon receipt of this notice, the parties to the dispute must report to the authority, within three days, the names of the members of the board whom they have chosen; in default of such report, the administrative authority itself appoints the members in place of the defaulting party. When this procedure is completed, the administrative authority demands the selection of the three neutral members by the six members representing the parties in dispute. Here again, in case of failure to select the three neutral members within four days and to report thereon, the administrative authority is empowered to appoint them; the members thus chosen by the administrative authority are deemed to be the members duly selected by the representatives of the parties to the dispute. Vacancies on the board are filled by applying *mutatis mutandis* the above-mentioned procedure. As soon as all the members are duly appointed, the board must be immediately convoked and the work must be commenced at once (sections 5 and 6).

(iii) if the request is made through a representative, sufficient information to show that he is representative of the party;
(iv) the address to which notices concerning the conciliation board should be sent;
(v) demands made in the dispute;
(vi) a brief account of the dispute."

[1] *Shoku-taku.*

Organisation and Functions

A conciliation board has a chairman and his "deputy"[1]. The nature of the work requires that these officers shall be entirely impartial; consequently they are elected by the neutral members from among themselves.

The quorum of the board is five members, and must include two of the members representing one party, two representing the other party, and either the chairman himself or his deputy. Decisions are taken by simple majority of the votes cast; if the votes are equal, the chairman has the casting vote. The sittings of the board are not open to the public. It was apparently felt that in order to arrive at a speedy settlement of a dispute, every precaution must be taken to foster and safeguard the spirit of conciliation. Opportunity must be provided for friendly conversation in place of formal negotiation, and for mutual concession instead of insistence upon the rights of either party. Only the officials connected with the conciliation service may be allowed to attend the sitting, with the consent of the board.

In order that the conciliation may be carried out with fairness, the board must have a thorough knowledge of the facts of the case. The work of the board can in fact be impartial and effective only if it has access to all available information. The law has therefore vested the board with the necessary power by providing in section 13 that "the conciliation board may demand either the attendance for purposes of explanation of the parties concerned or their representatives, or of other interested persons or referees, or the submission of explanatory documents, in so far as this is necessary for conciliation". The competence of the board goes even further, as it has the power of inspection. "The board", according to section 14, "may cause the members of the board to enter the workplace or other places connected with the dispute, watch the work or the operation of the equipment, or question the person concerned in so far as this is necessary for conciliation." The only exception to this rule is that the board is not empowered to investigate or inspect where secrecy is required for military reasons.

Any person who obstructs the exercise of the powers of the board as provided in sections 13 and 14 is liable to a fine of more than 50 yen but not exceeding 200 yen. The same penalty applies to any

[1] *Dairi*: literally a "deputy", but his function is essentially that of a vice-chairman.

member of the board who divulges a secret he has learned in the course of the investigation connected with the conciliation procedure.

The board is required to complete its work within fifteen days after being set up. This period of conciliation can be extended only with the unanimous approval of the members of the board representing the two parties to the dispute.

Upon terminating the conciliation procedure the board must at once submit a report of the proceedings to the administrative authority. Should the board fail to reach a settlement of a given dispute, the report submitted to the administrative authority must show a draft proposal for the conciliation of the dispute which was voted upon by the board, as well as the opinion of the minority upon the matter (section 16).

The Decisions of the Board

Another characteristic of this conciliation system is the optional nature of the decisions of the board. As has already been mentioned briefly, the findings of the board do not bind the parties to the dispute. There is however a special provision in this respect which must not be overlooked. The Act requires that, upon receipt of the report of the conciliation board, the administrative authority " shall publish the gist of the report " (section 17). Publication may be withheld only if the dispute has been settled and if all the members chosen by one of the parties concerned have previously expressed their opinion against publication.

It is unnecessary to point out the importance of the publication of the main points of the report, and of the plan of conciliation proposed by this impartial body after fifteen days' careful examination of the claims and of the real facts of the case. It is in effect an appeal to public opinion, a call for a more candid and powerful judgment of the case by the whole community. It invokes the moral support of the public in the matter of conciliation, and the pressure of public opinion is often far more effective than the enforcement of a judicial decision.

Restrictions imposed by the Act

The Act imposes certain restrictions on persons not directly connected with the dispute, with a view to checking the spread of a dispute pending the completion of the conciliation procedure.

According to section 19 of the Act, when a dispute occurs in an undertaking affecting the public welfare or in the manufacture of munitions, etc. under the management of the Army or the Navy, the restriction begins to apply as soon as the administrative authority has notified the parties in dispute that a conciliation board is to be set up. From this moment until the conclusion of the conciliation procedure, no one other than the employers and workers directly concerned in the dispute and the officers of the employers' or workers' organisations to which they belong may instigate or incite either the employers or the workers concerned in the dispute to declare either a lockout or a strike. The acts prohibited are : " to instigate or incite either the employers or the workers concerned in the dispute ", in order " (i) to cause the employer to close down the workplace, stop the work, terminate the employment of workers, or refuse a request for the continuation of labour, in connection with the labour dispute ; (ii) to cause a body of workers to stop work, impede the progress of work, terminate their employment, or refuse a request for their continuation in employment, in connection with the labour dispute. " An infringement of this provision of the Act is punishable either by a fine not exceeding 200 yen or by imprisonment not exceeding three months (section 22).

Administrative Preparation

A few words may be said regarding a series of preparatory measures taken by the Japanese Government with a view to applying the Act.

In May 1926 an Imperial Ordinance was promulgated which empowered the Bureau of Social Affairs to deal with matters relating to the conciliation of labour disputes. Consequently, as the first step, the former Labour Section of the Bureau was divided into two new Sections, one of which is now in charge of the conciliation of labour disputes[1]. At the same time, a large number of " conciliation officers "[2] and " assistant conciliation officers " have been appointed in the Bureau of Social Affairs, as well as in Hokkaido and all urban and local prefectures, to carry out the functions connected with the conciliation of labour disputes.

[1] The other Section deals mainly with relations with the International Labour Organisation and with labour legislation.

[2] *Chotei Kwan.*

Subsequently, in order to give a preparatory training to these officers, the Bureau of Social Affairs organised a training course, lasting six days from 24 June. Conciliation officers, assistant officers, chiefs of the labour information service, etc. from all the prefectures of Japan and Hokkaido were summoned to attend the course. Mr. Nagaoka, the Director General of the Bureau, in his opening address, specially urged the importance of tact and impartiality in applying the Conciliation Act.

Conclusion

What are the probable effects of this legislation and the administrative measures which have been taken in connection with it?

At the present moment, when not many months have elapsed since the Act came into force, it is obviously premature either to forecast or to pass any sort of judgment on the practical effects of this legislation. It must, moreover, be recalled that before the enactment of the law labour unions and certain classes of thinkers in Japan maintained a hostile attitude towards it. However, the opposition was based chiefly on the apprehension that the provision of section 19 might be used to suppress the strike itself; as the Prime Minister has confirmed in his speech in Parliament that " no pressure will be exerted against strikes " and as the real meaning of the terms used in the section in question has been made clear, it would seem that no fear need be entertained further in this respect[1]. Beyond all doubt, the law, if effectively applied with tact and fairness, should tend to minimise the losses occasioned by labour disputes, if not actually to lessen their number.

[1] Cf. *Industrial and Labour Information*, Vol. XVIII, pp. 108-111.

REPORTS AND ENQUIRIES

An Enquiry into Unemployment Insurance for Agricultural Workers in Great Britain

Unemployment in agriculture is a thing the very existence of which is often disputed. It is true that the winter always and inevitably brings with it a slackening of agricultural activities and a certain amount of idleness for both master and man. Where the land is worked chiefly by smallholders, share tenants, etc., it may be argued that the phenomenon to be considered is loss of profits and the possible inadequacy of the year's takings to meet the year's needs rather than unemployment strictly so-called. But where farmers definitely employ hired labourers, who have no resources but their labour, the slackening of agricultural activities may mean for the rural worker unemployment similar to that of his fellows in industry.

Whether and how far unemployment is prevalent among agricultural wage earners is a question of fact, to be answered only by precise statistics ; but these, unfortunately, are lacking in the majority of countries. Assertions that agricultural workers are suffering from unemployment are heard almost simultaneously with complaints of labour shortage. The two things are not necessarily inconsistent, however ; there may well be a shortage of labour in the busy planting and harvest seasons and unemployment in the winter.

The necessity or otherwise of unemployment insurance for agricultural workers depends very largely on the answer to the question as to the existence or extent of unemployment itself. But this is not the only difficulty. As with almost all social legislation, difficulties of administration and supervision are multiplied when the beneficiaries are widely scattered over sparsely populated rural areas.

Nevertheless the demands of justice are not satisfied by an enumeration of practical difficulties, and it is significant that insurance against unemployment in agriculture is a live question in many countries, although as yet it has only rarely been introduced in practice. In Great Britain it has recently again been the subject of investigation by an Inter-Departmental Committee, which presented its report in August 1926.

The Present Position

The British Act of 1920 expressly excludes from the unemployment insurance system "employment in agriculture, including horticulture and forestry". Speaking in the House of Commons when the Bill was

being discussed, the then Minister of Labour gave as the reason for the exclusion of agriculture and domestic service that " it is anticipated that protests would be made against the inclusion of either of these classes, because unemployment in them has always been at a much lower figure than in the other industries of the country. . . . Agricultural workers and domestic servants would be anxious to avoid the contributions in view of their greater immunity from the risks against which we are trying to guard. " The exclusion was passed into law and has remained in force ever since.

The subject was not dropped, however. Shortly after the adoption of the 1920 Act, the Agricultural Wages Board of England and Wales appointed a Committee " to enquire into and report upon the extent to which the Unemployment Insurance Act might be made applicable and beneficial to agricultural workers ". This Committee, representing both employers and workers, reported that :

They are unable to agree upon any recommendation to the Board and recognise that without such agreement further progress is impracticable. On the facts before them they conclude :

(1) that there is general opposition both by employers and workers to the inclusion of agriculture under the general provisions of the Unemployment Insurance Act, 1920 ;

(2) that there is no evidence that a special scheme for agriculture under the Act would or would not be acceptable to employers or workers and that in any case the information at present available as to the incidence of unemployment in agriculture is insufficient for the preparation of such a scheme ;

(3) that there is no evidence of such general agreement as would be necessary for the consideration of a voluntary scheme of insurance against unemployment outside the Act, and independent of state aid.

One of the workers' representatives, however, added a reservation to the effect that, while no large body of agricultural workers had protested against exclusion from the Act, " in some districts of different counties there is an undoubted desire to be so included ". The question has been discussed frequently in labour circles and there has been a growing body of opinion, voiced in resolutions of the Trades Union Congress and other meetings, in favour of including agricultural workers in unemployment insurance.

In May 1925 the Minister of Agriculture and Fisheries (for England and Wales) and the Secretary for Scotland jointly appointed a Committee of eleven members, including representatives of agricultural employers and workers,

" to consider and report whether it is desirable that workers in agriculture should be compulsorily insured against the risk of unemployment, and, if so, on what terms and conditions and in what manner the insurance of agricultural workers may be most effectively provided either by the inclusion of agriculture within the scope of existing legislation or by means of new legislation."

The report of the Committee gives a valuable summary of such facts as are available and of the state of opinion on this rather obscure and

difficult question[1]. The division of opinion on the subject is sufficiently illustrated by the fact that the report was signed by only six members of the Committee, the remaining five presenting a minority report[2].

Number of Agricultural Workers

The Committee found no precise records as to the number of persons at present excluded from unemployment insurance on the ground of their employment in agriculture and had therefore to make some estimate.

The first question to be considered was : what is agriculture for purposes of unemployment insurance ? No definition is given in the Acts, and from time to time doubts whether unemployment should or should not be deemed agricultural have had to be settled by the Minister of Labour or the High Court. At various times the exception has been held to apply to workers employed by farmers, landscape gardeners, nurserymen, and landowners ; it also covers jobbing gardeners employed by private individuals, greenkeepers and groundsmen, men employed in public parks, recreation grounds, cemeteries, and sewage farms. The exception thus covers rather more than farming as ordinarily understood.

On the other hand, it does not cover all kinds of employment by a farmer. Workers such as carpenters, blacksmiths, sawyers, etc., employed by farmers wholly or mainly at their own craft, have to be insured. Again, if a farmer also carries on a separate business which is not essentially agricultural, such as haulage, milling, horse and cattle dealing, or retail butchering, which are covered by insurance, contributions must be paid in respect of men employed on such work unless they are employed for the majority of their time on non-insurable work in agriculture.

As a practical basis for its work, the Committee assumed that all workers employed by farmers or others in the cultivation of the soil and the care of or attendance on farm livestock are excluded from the unemployment insurance scheme.

There were two sources from which to estimate the number of workers so employed — the occupational statistics of the general census and the agricultural returns collected from farmers by the Ministry of Agriculture and Fisheries and the Scottish Board of Agriculture. According to the population census taken on 19 June 1921 the number of persons employed in agriculture was about 690,000, of whom 643,000 were men and 47,000 women. The agricultural returns for 4 June 1921 of the number of persons actually employed on agricultural holdings of one acre or more, on the other hand, gave the total as 996,000, of whom 837,000 were men and 159,000 women. The returns for June 1925 gave 787,000 men and 138,000 women, a total of 925,000. The discrepancy between

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[1] Ministry of Agriculture and Fisheries and Scottish Office : *Report of the Inter-Departmental Committee on Agricultural Unemployment Insurance.* London, H.M. Stationery Office, 1926. 107 pp. 6s.

[2] It appears that the majority consisted of the Chairman, the workers representatives, and one impartial member ; the minority of the employers' representatives and the other impartial member.

the two sets of figures cannot be entirely reconciled, and is due partly to differences in classification and to uncertainties as to the position of workers intermittently employed.

An important distinction is that between regular and casual workers. Regular agricultural workers in Scotland and parts of Northern England and of Wales are engaged on yearly or half-yearly contracts, while in the greater part of England they are paid and employed by the week, although they often remain with the same employer for long periods. In fact, it was suggested that the worker on a long contract changed his employer more frequently than the worker engaged by the week, the yearly or half-yearly " hiring fairs " affording a definite opportunity for this. In June 1925 the proportion of regular workers was about 80 per cent. in England and Wales and 84 per cent. in Scotland.

At the same date the total number of casual workers was 183,782, of whom 58,570 were women. The term casual worker covers a great variety of workers and in some cases is misleading. Casual workers may be roughly classified into four main groups :

(*a*) Workers in regular employment but working for more than one employer. This includes skilled workers such as hedgers and thatchers, who are often in a better economic position than the so-called " regular " workers. They are equally dependent for their entire livelihood on agriculture.

(*b*) Workers whose only occupation is agriculture but who are not employed for the whole year.

(*c*) Workers employed in agriculture for the greater part of the year and in some other occupation for the rest of the time.

(*d*) Purely seasonal workers engaged for the harvest of hops, peas, fruit, etc., who do not seek agricultural employment at other times and may be more or less regularly engaged in other work.

To these the minority of the Committee add a fifth class : " persons who owing to age, infirmity, character, or any other cause, which may include absence of work, are only able to secure occasional employment. "

Unfortunately there are no statistics to indicate the relative numerical importance of these different groups. It is clear that no generalisation about the so-called " casual workers " is valid ; they may all be liable to agricultural unemployment — as may the regular workers — but the nature and consequences of this unemployment will vary very considerably.

Incidence of Unemployment

The Committee was not explicity instructed to enquire into the existence or extent of unemployment in agriculture, but felt this to be a necessary preliminary to investigating the need of insurance. If unemployment does not and will not exist in British agriculture, the question of insurance would not arise ; if, on the other hand, the risk does or may exist, some estimate of its magnitude is essential.

At the outset the Committee was faced with an almost total absence of statistics. The employment exchanges under the Ministry of Labour

register and endeavour to place agricultural and horticultural workers who may apply to them, but the proportion of the rural labour market which they cover is small, both because the exchanges are located in industrial and urban centres and because one of the main incentives to register as unemployed is lacking owing to the exclusion of agriculture from the benefits of unemployment insurance. Statistics taken from the employment exchanges can therefore be used only to indicate the existence and not the extent of unemployment.

The numbers registered with the exchanges are very small, especially in relation to the total live register, which has been over a million for the last five years. The highest figures recorded occurred in March 1921 for England and Wales, with 5,369 registered unemployed in agriculture and 2,628 in gardening, and in December 1921 for Scotland, when 1,487 were registered in agriculture and 118 in gardening. In 1925 the figures were exceptionally low, ranging in agriculture from 693 to 892 for England and Wales and from 130 to 221 for Scotland, while in horticulture the respective figures were 528 to 663 and 81 to 109. There is thus some evidence that unemployment does exist in agriculture and that it was considerably worse in 1921 than in 1925.

The Committee also endeavoured to obtain indirect evidence as to the extent of agricultural unemployment from the statistics of poor-law relief in rural areas and the arrears of contributions in health insurance societies catering mainly for agricultural workers. In 111 rural poor-law unions in England and Wales the number of persons normally engaged in a regular but uninsured occupation (i.e. generally agriculture) in receipt of domiciliary relief, with their dependants, ranged from 514 to 1,061 in 1923 and from 558 to 729 in 1925. The minority report points out that these figures amount to less than one per 10,000 of the population in these unions. Similar evidence for Scotland showed that in May 1925 not more than 55 able-bodied agricultural workers with 160 dependants were receiving poor-law relief.

The evidence of health insurance societies catering for the rural population (not exclusively agricultural workers) showed that the average annual deficiency in contributions ranged from 2 to 5 weeks for men and 4 to 8 weeks for women in England and Wales, while in one Scottish society the average was 3 days for men and 8 for women. Deficiency in contributions may, of course, be due to causes other than unemployment, while on the other hand members may contrive to continue their contributions even though unemployed. In any case the figures do not suggest widespread or long-continued unemployment.

In the absence of satisfactory statistical evidence the Committee had to rely mainly on the statements of persons or bodies with knowledge of agricultural conditions, and these, of course, represent at best only considered opinions or estimates. This evidence revealed a great diversity of opinion in different areas and even in the same district, which made it extremely difficult for the Committee to reach any general conclusions.

Enquiries were sent to all members of the local agricultural wages committees, which include employers, workers, and impartial members, but altogether less than half of them replied. As regards regular farm

workers, in January 1925 chairmen and impartial members reported unemployment in six areas, employers in one only, and workers in 37 out of the total of 47 areas ; in 25 of these the estimated proportion of unemployed ranged up to as much as 10 per cent. In June chairmen and impartial members reported a few cases of unemployment in three areas, employers in two, and workers in 36 : in nine cases there was said to be unemployment " to an appreciable extent ". Unemployment among casual workers in the winter was said by chairmen and impartial members to be serious in only one area. Employers quoted instances in six areas (in one 10 per cent., in another 5), and workers in 38 areas, the estimated proportion in a few cases running to 10 per cent. or over.

Evidence was also sought from organisations of agricultural employers and workers. The National Farmers' Union for Scotland stated generally that unemployment does not exist in Scottish agriculture, and this was substantially corroborated by the representative of the Scottish Farm Servants' Union.

The National Farmers' Union in England and Wales, summarising information obtained by questionnaire from its branches, stated that unemployment among regular workers existed in only three counties, that in any case it did not amount to more than one per cent. of the total, and was confined to youths and old men. As regards casual workers, the Union stated that the period of minimum employment was from December to April or May, but owing to the difficulty in obtaining labour the seasonal decrease had been largely eliminated ; for 30 counties employing over 82,000 casual workers in June 1925 the maximum reduction in winter was said to be 25 per cent.

The evidence of the workers differed considerably from this. The National Union of Agricultural Workers learned from questionnaires issued in the spring of 1924 that of 21,000 men in 33 different counties 4.9 per cent. were then unemployed. The representative of the Union estimated that the " normal " extent of unemployment between October and February was from 2½ to 5 per cent. and its duration from six to thirty weeks in the year.

The Committee also accepted evidence as to unemployment in past years, since the present time is regarded as abnormal. It points out that there must have been unemployment among agricultural labourers in the past, since the total number employed in agriculture, according to the census, fell by more than 350,000 between 1871 and 1921. The area under arable cultivation declined during the same period by about 3¼ million acres, estimated to involve 100,000 men in loss of employment. The Committee took into account the possibility of future transitional unemployment if further changes took place in the distribution of population and the use of the land.

A problem raised by some of the workers' representatives was that resulting from the system of tied cottages, where the farmer-employer is also the landlord. Unemployment for the tenant of a tied cottage also means homelessness and thus even greater hardship. Under existing law the farmer may evict his tenant only if he can satisfy the local agricultural committee that the cottage is essential for the proper working of the farm, but the workers allege that the committees autho-

rise evictions by a majority, who are landowners and farmers, almost "automatically".

The majority of the Committee arrived at the conclusion that in England and Wales, although in 1925 the number of agricultural workers unemployed was unusually small, there was some unemployment in various parts of the country even in the spring and summer. They consider it "not unreasonable to assume" that 0.5 per cent. of the regular workers and 3 per cent. of the casual workers would be unemployed in the course of the year. Allowing for dependants, this would mean that about 24,000 persons would be affected by unemployment. The majority conclude "that the risk of unemployment in agriculture cannot be ignored, that it exists even under the present unusually favourable conditions, and that it may at any time reach more serious dimensions."

The minority of the Commitee, on the other hand, conclude that the immunity from the risk of unemployment enjoyed by agricultural workers in 1920 continues and will continue in no lessened degree. In fact, they anticipate an increased shortage of labour in view of: (1) the fall in the number of children attending rural schools; (2) the impending grant (in 1928) of old-age pensions at 65, when the older labourers will give up regular work; (3) the increased demand for labour on electricity schemes and road maintenance; (4) the demand for agricultural workers as immigrants in the Dominions: (5) the attraction of work under urban conditions.

Both the majority and minority were in agreement that the risk of unemployment was very much less in Scotland than in England and Wales, possibly owing to the prevalence of long-term contracts.

Desirability of Insurance

In considering the desirability of unemployment insurance for agricultural workers, the Committee felt that the first essential was to know the views of employers and workers on the subject.

In Scotland both employers and workers appear to be opposed to inclusion in insurance, and for this reason, coupled with the smaller risk of unemployment, the Committee made no recommendation for Scotland.

In England and Wales opinions were sharply divided. The farmers' organisations and individual employers were all strongly opposed to insurance, while the workers were as strongly in favour of it. Opinion among agricultural workers has changed since 1920 and only a minority are now opposed to insurance. The arguments in favour of the inclusion of agriculture which the majority of the Committee accepted were, first, that it is unjust to exclude agricultural workers from the economic security which it is the national policy to provide for wage earners generally. The low level of agricultural wages and the practical impossibility of saving make it even more necessary to give agricultural workers the same protection against the hardship of unemployment as that enjoyed by industrial workers earning higher wages. The second argument was that the absence of any protection against unemploymen

is one of the reasons for the drift to the towns and industrial employment. "The exclusion of farm workers from unemployment insurance is thus prejudicial to the interests of agriculture, while at the same time transferring to other industries a liability which it ought properly to bear." The majority stated that the objections to the inclusion of agriculture placed before the Committee were mainly those applicable to the whole principle of unemployment insurance, with which the Committee was not directly concerned.

The minority of the Committee were opposed to the extension of insurance to agriculture, both because of its immunity from unemployment and because no workable scheme could be devised. The latter objection falls to be considered under the next heading.

Practicability of Insurance

The Committee took full evidence as to the working of the general scheme of unemployment insurance and of the special schemes for the banking and insurance industry set up under section 18 of the 1920 Act, and received suggestions from several witnesses as to a suitable scheme for agriculture.

Since the introduction of further special schemes under section 18 is indefinitely suspended, the possibility of providing for agriculture under this head was ruled out. In any case it would be difficult to do this, since the state makes no contribution to special schemes, and expert witnesses differed as to the possibility of providing the necessary administrative machinery.

Only one or two witnesses suggested that agriculture should be included in the existing general scheme, and the Committee were unanimous in considering the present scheme inapplicable to agriculture. Some witnesses proposed that unemployment insurance for agriculture should be linked up with health insurance, a suggestion on which the Committee expresses no opinion.

Both majority and minority were agreed that the only possibility to be considered was an entirely new system for agriculture under special legislation. The information laid before the Committee was insufficient to serve as basis for detailed proposals, but the majority indicate the general lines on which a scheme might be constructed. They describe the difficulties as considerable but not insuperable.

The general finance of the system should be the same as in the existing scheme for industry, involving contributions from employers, workers, and the state. Although information as to the actual or potential extent of unemployment is vague and incomplete, the majority consider a "fairly safe" basis for financial calculations to be the estimate that 1 per cent. of the regular workers and 5 per cent. of the casual workers would claim benefit in the course of the year and that the average duration of unemployment would be four weeks for regular workers and ten weeks for casual workers.

If the benefits were the same as under the general Act[1], and if it

[1] Men 18s. weekly, women 15s., boys 7s. 6d., girls 6s. Dependants' benefit 5s. for dependent wife or husband and 2s. for each child under 14.

were assumed that each wage earner on an average had two dependants, the annual liability would be about £150,000. The scheme might be calculated for an annual liability of £250,000 and thus provide for a greater degree of unemployment than appears to exist at present. The number of insurable workers would be about 700,000 (excluding certain temporary harvest workers, etc.), so that a total weekly contribution of 6d. would provide an annual income of £900,000, allowing of the accumulation of a liberal reserve.

Assuming that a contribution of 6d. per head per week would be adequate, the majority recommend that half of this should be paid by the state and the other half in equal shares by employer and worker. They defend the assumption by the state of a larger proportion of the burden than in the general scheme on the ground of the experimental nature of any scheme for agriculture. They further insist that the scheme should be reviewed after two or three years' working to allow for any necessary adjustments.

Benefits should be paid on the same scale as under the general scheme. Since, however, wages are considerably lower in agriculture than in industry and it is undesirable to pay more in benefit than a man would earn if in employment, the Committee recommends a general proviso whereby the total weekly amount of the benefit received should in no case exceed the weekly wage last earned.

Where workers are employed partly in agriculture and partly in nsurable industrial occupations it is suggested that they should be entitled to claim benefit from the general fund and the agricultural fund in proportion to the number of contributions paid to each. The minority report lays great stress on the demarcation difficulties which would arise in such cases and also questions whether the casual worker only occasionally employed in agriculture is an insurable proposition at all.

Where regular workers are employed all the year round by the same farmer it is suggested that the employers' and workers' contributions might be paid quarterly in advance on a reduced scale. Thus, if the ordinary contribution were 1½d. each per week (equal to 13s. per annum together), the quarterly payment might be 1s. 6d. each. For an employer of 10 regular workers on a farm of 350 acres this would involve an annual charge of £3, or rather less than 3d. per acre.

The minority of the Committee, opposed in principle to the extension of insurance to agriculture, simply state that they have no data upon which to formulate a separate scheme involving new legislation.

The difficulties involved in providing the necessary administrative machinery appear considerable. The employment exchanges under the Ministry of Labour, which administer the general scheme of unemployment insurance, would be inadequate for the purpose, both in number and in location. The essentials are to have means of testing the *bona fides* of a claimant and of restoring him to employment as soon as possible. The majority of the Committee recommend that the Ministry of Agriculture should be responsible for the administration of the scheme with the co-operation of the Ministry of Labour. Local administration should be entrusted to joint bodies representing employers and

workers — possibly in the first instance the existing agricultural wages committees. A central body representative of employers and workers should be set up, at least with advisory powers and possibly also with some powers of supervision and control.

The minority consider that the administrative difficulties are insuperable and constitute the final argument against the introduction of insurance.

Since the publication of the report the British Government has announced that it does not propose to adopt the recommendations of the Committee.

The Distribution of Unemployed Workers in Switzerland by Age and Skill

Distribution by Age Groups

The Swiss Federal Labour Office recently began to compile half-yearly statistics of the distribution of unemployed workers by age groups. The first two half-yearly returns — for the end of January and the end of July 1926 — are now available[1].

These returns are based upon the number of applications for work registered by the public employment exchanges. They do not cover the whole number of unemployed persons, but are sufficiently representative of the state of affairs on the labour market as a whole.

As the detailed commentary published by the Federal Labour Office points out, unemployment statistics classified by age groups are of great interest. Taken in conjunction with the results of enquiries into seasonal fluctuations on the labour market and the distribution of apprentices among various trades, they supply useful information for helping to determine the causes of unemployment. Moreover, statistics of this kind are the necessary basis for any special measures taken to assist elderly unemployed workers, and form the starting-point for vocational guidance of young workers which shall take account of the needs of the labour market.

The returns for the end of January 1926 dealt with 20,206 unemployed workers out of a total of 22,080 then registered with the various public employment exchanges, and the corresponding figures at the end of July 1926 were 11,842 unemployed workers out of a total of 12,464 registered. The proportion of workers not covered by the enquiry was thus slightly smaller on the second occasion than on the first.

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[1] Cf. *Informations de statistique sociale*, April and Sept. 1926. Berne.

Taking each of the returns as a whole, the percentage of workers in the various age groups was as follows :

Date	Under 20 years	20-29 years	30-39 years	40-49 years	50-59 years	60 years and over
31 Jan. 1926	9	33	19	17	13	9
31 July 1926	10	35	19	15	12	9

This comparison shows that the percentage of unemployed increased slightly in the first two age groups, decreased among workers aged 40 to 59 years, and remained stable among those aged 30 to 39 years and 60 years and over. In other words, the proportion of young unemployed workers was a little higher at the end of July than at the end of January.

The percentage for each sex in the various age groups at the two periods considered was as follows :

Date and sex	Under 20 years	20-29 years	30-39 years	40-49 years	50-59 years	60 years and over
Men:						
31 Jan 1926	8	33	19	17	14	9
31 July 1926	8	35	20	15	12	10
Women :						
31 Jan. 1926	18	32	17	15	11	7
31 July 1926	21	36	16	14	8	5

It will be seen from this table that, on the average, the women seeking employment were much younger than the men. This higher proportion of young women than of young men among the unemployed is partially due to the fact that (according to the population census) the percentage of young female workers in Switzerland is much higher than that of young male workers. The percentage distribution of workers by sex and age groups as given by the general census of 1920 was as follows :

Sex	Under 20 years	20-29 years	30-39 years	40-49 years	50-59 years	60 years and over
Men	13	32	22	17	10	6
Women	22	37	16	11	8	6

Thus 13 out of every 100 male workers in Switzerland were under 20 years of age, while the corresponding proportion of female workers was 22 per cent. Moreover, if the information furnished by the census is combined with the figures for unemployment, the proportion of unemployed per 100 workers in each age and sex group is as follows:

Date and sex	Under 20 years	20-29 years	30-39 years	40-49 years	50-59 years	60 years and over
Men :						
31 Jan. 1926	1.2	2.1	1.7	2.1	2.7	2.8
31 July 1926	0.6	1.3	1.0	1.0	1.3	1.7
Women :						
31 Jan. 1926	0.6	0.6	0.8	0.9	1.0	0.9
31 July 1926	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.6	0.5	0.5

Thus unemployment is less severe among women than among men in all the age groups, and the decrease from the end of January to the end of July has been similar for both sexes. The two series of figures also show that, among male workers, the proportion of unemployed increases with age, except in the age group 30 to 39 years. Among women, however, the figures show that at the end of July there was almost the same proportion of unemployment (0.5 per cent.) in all age groups.

Unemployment is most prevalent among male workers in the age groups 20 to 29 years and 40 years and over. As regards the former, the Federal Labour Office explains that the position is partly due to the excessive numbers of young workers entering trades which are already overcrowded or which need a lengthy vocational training. In the age groups 40 years and over unemployment is principally due to the preference given to younger workers; a contributory cause, however, is the severe depression in the textile industry, in which the workers employed are relatively older than in most other branches of industry.

The relatively small proportion of unemployment in the group under 20 years of age is explained by the fact that about half the workers under 20 are employed in agriculture, where unemployment is practically non-existent. Apart from agriculture, however, 1.2 per cent. of the workers under 20 years of age were unemployed, this being mainly due to the large number of young workers seeking employment in commercial undertakings.

The proportion of unemployed workers in the various age groups is not the same in different cantons. The highest percentage of workers in the older groups is found in the Cantons of Appenzell (Ausser Rhoden) and St. Gall, where the textile industry is the most important, and in the Canton of Geneva. The highest proportion of unemployed young workers is found in the agricultural Cantons of Valais, Fribourg, and the Ticino.

Among men, the age groups from 20 to 39 years include a very high proportion (more than 80 per cent.) of unemployed workers belonging to the liberal and intellectual professions; in commerce and administration approximately half the unemployed are between 20 and 29 years of age. The proportion of young women unemployed in the latter group of occupations is also very high; about 30 per cent. of the whole number of unemployed women in commercial occupations (mainly clerks and shop assistants) are under 20 years of age.

Among the various trade groups, the average age of unemployed workers is greatest in the textile industry. Of every 100 unemployed male workers belonging to this group, not more than one or two are under 20 years of age, while from 66 to 76 are 40 or over. The corresponding figures for women are: under 20 years of age, from 3 to 7 per cent.; over 40 years of age, 50 to 68 per cent. Detailed figures for the various branches of the textile industry are given in the following table:

PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION BY AGE GROUPS OF UNEMPLOYED WORKERS IN THE TEXTILE INDUSTRY IN 1926

Branch of industry	Date (1926)	Under 20 years	20-29 years	30-39 years	40-49 years	50-59 years	60 years and over
Men:							
Silk	1 Jan.	2	6	10	24	31	27
„	31 July	3	32	10	13	29	13
Cotton	1 Jan.	2	12	20	17	23	26
„	31 July	1	18	17	10	21	33
Embroidery	1 Jan.	1	3	14	30	26	26
„	31 July	3	12	15	20	21	29
Bleaching, dyeing, etc.	1 Jan.	3	13	20	28	20	16
„ „	31 July	—	17	25	19	17	22
Women:							
Silk	1 Jan.	8	29	22	21	15	5
„	31 July	13	25	25	17	12	8
Cotton	1 Jan.	1	6	17	18	30	28
„	31 July	2	17	12	17	33	19
Embroidery	1 Jan.	2	7	16	29	24	22
„	31 July	3	22	19	19	16	21

These figures show that the average age of unemployed workers was relatively high in all branches of the textile industry, though it fell noticeably between 31 January and 31 July 1926. The cotton industry has the largest number of unemployed workers aged 60 or over : these are principally home workers in the Canton of Appenzell (Ausser Rhoden).

There is also a large proportion of unemployed workers in the older age groups in the watchmaking industry.

Distribution by Vocational Training and Skill

The Federal Labour Office has also recently examined the distribution of unemployed workers by degree of vocational training and skill[1].

Switzerland, like many other countries, suffers from an excess of untrained workers, due in many cases to absence of definite choice on the part of young persons leaving school. The result is a far too numerous group of unskilled workers ; this group is the first to suffer in times of depression, and a certain proportion of it is always unemployed, even in times of prosperity. On the other hand, there is quite frequently a shortage of efficient skilled workers. This, says the Federal Labour Office, is a state of affairs which is especially notable in Switzerland, where it dates from before the war. The excess of untrained workers and the shortage of trained workers are the more difficult to deal with because the kind of industrial production found in Switzerland demands

[1] Cf. *Informations de statistique sociale*, Oct. 1926.

very great technical skill. The result is that large numbers of highly skilled foreign workers, whose services can only be obtained by paying them higher wages, have to be brought into the country.

During and after the war the proportion of unskilled workers in Switzerland seems to have risen still higher. During the war, increased needs made it possible to employ all available labour; and as young workers without any vocational training easily found employment, there was naturally less inducement for them to learn any particular trade. Further, material circumstances in many cases became so much more difficult that numbers of young persons had to look for paid employment as early as possible, and give up any idea of apprenticeship or training. Finally, in certain industries the wages of unskilled workers gradually became almost equal to those of skilled workers; and thus the last inducement for young workers to learn a skilled trade disappeared.

The temporary tendency to equalisation of wages is clearly shown by the following table, which gives the index number of daily earnings of certain classes of skilled workers compared with those of unskilled workers, the latter being taken as equal to 100.

Category	1913	1918	1919	1920	1921	1922	1923	1924
Foremen	163	156	143	138	158	170	169	160
Skilled and semi-skilled workers	127	124	119	115	122	127	127	125
Unskilled workers	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100

The tendency to equalisation of wages became more and more marked up to 1920; it decreased in subsequent years until the differences between the wages of the different grades had regained their pre-war levels. Towards the close of 1920, however, the wave of unemployment began, placing a further obstacle in the way of an increase in the number of skilled workers. Unfortunately, these were the years during which the training of a greater supply of workers, especially for the building and woodworking industries, was most urgently needed. In their absence, it became necessary to grant an extension of the authorisation to remain and work in the country to a number of foreign workers, when the industrial depression was at its worst, and in spite of the widespread unemployment then existing in Switzerland among the unskilled workers and commercial employees who were a glut on the market.

A comparison of the results of the two most recent censuses (those of 1910 and 1920) shows that the proportion of unskilled as compared with skilled workers has greatly increased, the number (excluding agriculture) of unskilled workers having risen from 149,688 in 1910 to 173,476 in 1920, an increase of 16 per cent.; whereas, during the same period, the number of skilled workers (excluding agriculture but including domestic service) rose by only 11 per cent. The position has improved slightly during the last two years, owing partly to the greater stability of the economic situation, resulting in an increase in the number of apprentices, and partly to the efforts which have been made to introduce vocational guidance for young persons.

Further, the statistical returns collected every quarter by the Federal Labour Office on the industrial situation prove that the labour shortage notified by various undertakings is in nearly every case a shortage of skilled workers, while the excess of workers registered as unemployed is chiefly made up of unskilled workers. Thus, in the second quarter of 1926, two-fifths of the undertakings included in the returns notified the existence of an excess of unskilled workers, while a shortage of unskilled workers was notified by less than 1 per cent. of them. On the contrary, 22 per cent. of these undertakings notified a shortage of skilled labour, and 19.6 per cent. a surplus. These last figures would seem to indicate that in Switzerland not only are the proportions of unskilled and skilled labour quite wrong, but also that the distribution of the latter group over the various industries does not correspond to the precise needs of the labour market. A similar conclusion may be drawn from the statistics of the labour market.

WORKERS IN SEARCH OF EMPLOYMENT PER THOUSAND WORKERS

Date (end of month)	Men		Women		Total	
	Unskilled	Others	Unskilled	Others	Unskilled	Others
1924 July	16	5	9	2	15	4
Sept.	19	5	9	3	17	4
Dec.	24	7	8	3	20	5
1925 March	22	6	9	3	19	5
June	14	4	8	4	12	4
Sept.	15	5	10	7	14	6
Dec.	36	8	16	8	31	8
1926 March	24	7	13	8	22	7
June	15	5	11	6	14	6
Sept.	23	6	11	7	20	7

Even if the undoubted lacunae in these data are taken into account, together with the fact that the statistics are certainly more complete in respect of unskilled than of skilled workers (the figures denoting applications for employment), it is nevertheless clear that unemployment affects unskilled workers more severely than others, among both men and women. The fact that the difference is slightly less among women than among men is due, according to the Federal Labour Office, to the circumstance that in the textile industry the industrial depression has principally affected skilled and semi-skilled women workers.

It may be noted that it is not only in the case of general unemployment that unskilled workers suffer more severely than skilled workers; seasonal fluctuations in the labour market also affect the former more severely, in duration as well as in severity. As a rule, the unemployment curve reaches its lowest point at the end of July for the labour market in general and for all categories of workers. If unemployment at the end of July is taken as 100, its movement in the succeeding months works out, for the two categories considered, as follows :

INDEX NUMBERS OF WORKERS IN SEARCH OF EMPLOYMENT

Date (end of month)	1924 - 1925		1925 - 1926		1926 - 1927	
	Skilled and semi-skilled	Unskilled	Skilled and semi-skilled	Unskilled	Skilled and semi-skilled	Unskilled
July	100	100	100	100	100	100
Aug.	105	113	100	102	106	111
Sept.	96	117	100	112	112	127
Oct.	109	110	114	143	—	—
Nov.	145	137	142	208	—	—
Dec.	144	139	148	245	—	—
Jan.	151	162	187	294	—	—
Feb.	154	148	171	237	—	—
March	127	132	136	173	—	—
April	107	108	106	132	—	—
May	87	87	96	130	—	—
June	114	85	97	113	—	—

In general, seasonal unemployment affects unskilled workers before others, and is severer and more prolonged among the unskilled. On the other hand, the average period of unemployment is shorter for unskilled than for skilled workers; for example, in 1925 this period averaged 21 days for unskilled as against 28 days for skilled workers. This is due to the fact that the unskilled worker who keeps his job for a shorter time than the skilled worker is also more easily placed, and constitutes a kind of floating element in the labour supply. As unskilled workers frequently change their job and are always available in considerable numbers, it naturally follows that vacancies offered to them never remain long unfilled; in 1925, for instance, vacancies for skilled and semi-skilled workers took, on an average, eleven days to fill, while vacancies for unskilled workers were filled on an average within four days, and those for labourers and day-labourers on an average in one day.

In conclusion, says the Federal Labour Office, efforts to reduce the number of workers without a definite trade are of the greatest importance, not only because they offer a first solution of certain aspects of the unemployment problem by making it possible to reduce the excess of foreign labour, but also because, if they succeed, they will secure better and more stable conditions of living for the Swiss working population.

Factory Inspection in Australia in 1925

Victoria [1]

As in previous years, the report of the Chief Inspector of Factories in Victoria is concerned mainly with the administration of the Factories

[1] Victoria. Department of Labour: *Report of the Chief Inspector of Factories and Shops for the Year ended 31 December 1925.* Melbourne. Govt. Printer. 1926. 48 pp.

and Shops Acts; in addition to these, the inspectorate supervises the observance of the Servants' Registry Offices Act, the Footwear Regulation Act, and the Lifts Regulation Act. The number of persons engaged in the work of inspection is not stated, but special reports are quoted from an inspector of machinery (pp. 9-10) and two inspectors of lifts (p. 15). It is also reported that a woman medical inspector of factories was appointed on 1 October 1925, her principal duties being to investigate the effect of conditions of employment in factories and shops on the health of women and girls, and to act as certifying surgeon in respect of girls under fifteen when required (p. 7).

The total number of factories on the register of the inspectorate in 1925 was 10,174 (10,012)[1], and 128,013 (129,147) persons were employed therein, inclusive of working employers and their children. These totals are analysed by trades and districts, the employees being further classified by sex in each district (pp. 5, 19-25). There were 34,692 (33,388) registered shops employing 36,912 (34,853) persons, almost one-fourth of whom (as in 1924) were in the drapery trade (pp. 10, 26). Trade is said to have been dull during the greater part of the year, partly owing to the shortage of raw materials and other supplies caused by the shipping dispute (p. 5). There was a considerable amount of unemployment (p. 6), but overtime was worked in 60 (51) factories by 10,687 (10,482) women and girls and 264 (239) boys (p. 36).

Statistics of trade disputes are given for the manufacturing industries; this feature appeared for the first time in the 1924 report. There were 5 (9) disputes in these industries, directly involving 860 (989) employees and entailing a loss of 8,208 (4,121) working days. The principal disputes in industry in general are described in tabular form, with their scope, duration, cause, and result. Most of the disputes turned on wages questions; the longest was the Melbourne gasworkers' strike, but far more loss of time was caused by the strike of the engineers at the State coal mine at Wonthaggi (p. 8). On 31 December 1925 there were 181 (183) wages boards in existence or authorised, covering about 193,000 (192,300) persons (p. 11). Of these boards 98 (102) covered only the urban area of the State, where most of the factories are situated. Lists are given of the boards covering different areas, and of the trades possessing boards which are also affected by Commonwealth awards or agreements (pp. 11-13). Detailed statistics are given of the average weekly wages, and the number of persons to whom they apply, under various age groups and grades of skill, in the trades covered by wages boards (pp. 27-33), and similar particulars are given for trades without boards (pp. 34-35).

There were no prosecutions during the year under any of the Acts administered by the inspectorate except the Factories and Shops Acts. Under these Acts 526 (928) prosecutions were instituted, and 482 (677) convictions were obtained, 25 (13) cases being withdrawn and 19 (38) dismissed. Three-fifths of the prosecutions were directed against

[1] The figures in brackets are those for 1924. For summary of 1924 report cf. *International Labour Review*, Vol. XIII, No. 2, Feb. 1926, p. 253.

shopkeepers trading after the legal closing hours, and 65 (67) cases were for breaches of determinations of wages boards (p. 37).

The report does not contain much information respecting hygiene and welfare work. There were only six prosecutions in relation to hygiene — two for uncleanliness of premises, and four for lack of sanitary accommodation in connection with shops (p. 37). Owing to the efforts of the inspectors in 1924 and 1925, practically all the metal-polishing workshops in the State are reported to be equipped with dust exhausts, which are now appreciated even by occupiers who at first objected to installing them (p. 9). It is noted that several large firms have made extensive provision for the comfort and recreation of their employees (p. 7).

During the year 996 (1,052) accidents were reported, 8 (9) being fatal. These totals are elaborately analysed to show the cause of the accident (industry and type of machine), age (over or under 18) and sex of the injured person, and part of the body injured (pp. 38-45). Nearly two-thirds of the accidents reported were not caused by machinery. Three of the eight deaths were caused by contact with transmission machinery (two of them while attempting to place a belt on a pulley). Conditions in woodworking and sawmilling were somewhat improved, only one finger-joint being lost through the use of a square cutter block, while the enforcement of guards for circular saws reduced both the frequency and the severity of accidents on this type of machine (p. 9). Allusion is again made to the difficulty of enforcing the proper guarding of travelling chaffcutters, owing to the terms in which the law relating to such machines is drafted (p. 9). There is a special return of accidents at chaffcutters on farms, eleven in all, one being fatal, and nearly all being caused by the feed rollers or cogwheels (p. 46). There were only 4 (9) accidents in connection with lifts, 1 (2) being fatal — a lift attendant forced the lock of the lift well and stepped into the opening when the lift was not there. Good results are reported from the compulsory testing of the safety gear of lifts every three months by an authorised engineer (pp. 15, 47-48).

South Australia[1]

As in 1924[2], the report on factory inspection in South Australia in 1925 consists mainly of statistical tables. In a brief introductory note it is stated that the inspection staff is the same as in 1924 — fourteen men (one of whom specialises in lift inspection, while two deal with scaffolding) and two women, in addition to the Chief Inspector (p. 5). This staff during 1925 administered the Industrial Code (which was amended during the year[3]), and the Acts relating to early closing, registry offices, steam boilers, lifts, and scaffolding.

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[1] South Australia. Ministry of Industry, Factories and Steam Boilers Department: *Report of the Chief Inspector of Factories and Steam Boilers for the Year 1925.* Adelaide, Govt. Printer, 1926. 24 pp.

[2] For summary of 1924 report cf. *International Labour Review*, Vol. XIII, No. 2, Feb. 1926, p. 256.

[3] Amended Code reprinted in International Labour Office: *Legislative Series*, 1926, Austral. 1.

There were 2,136 (2,104)[1] factories, and 8,890 (8,039)[2] shops on the registers of the inspectorate in 1925. The registered factories employed 27,838 (25,997) persons and the registered shops 29,409 (26,730) persons (pp. 7, 19-21). Both for factories and for shops the employees are classified by sex, age (up to 16, 16-21, 21 and upwards), and industry ; and the numbers of factories and shops of various sizes are also given. Employees under 16 years of age numbered 1,751 (1,842) in factories and 1,332 (1,150) in shops (pp. 6, 19, 21). More than three-quarters of the factories had ten or fewer employees, and only 86 employed over 60 persons (p. 6).

Particulars of the inspections effected, other than the complete inspections of steam boilers (p. 23), are not given, though it is stated that throughout the year " work proceeded at high pressure " (p. 5). Orders for improvements were issued under the Industrial Code to occupiers of factories in 293 (82) cases ; 133 (21) of them related to the guarding of machinery, and half the remainder to " renovations " (p. 14). Many of the orders respecting machinery were sent by request of the occupiers, who were merely lessees of the factories and wished for this documentary evidence to justify their expenditure (p. 4). It was found that in some factories the employees were not very ready to co-operate in the use of guards, but conditions are said to be gradually improving (p. 3).

The total number of accidents reported was 342 (367), of which 7 (3) were fatal. Machinery caused 163 (147) of these accidents, including 4 of the deaths. As in 1924, over half the total number of accidents affected the hands and arms, most of the 63 (57) accidents in woodworking being of this nature (pp. 3-4, 13). A special order prescribing measures for the prevention of dust was sent to all woodworking factories in the course of the year, and it is reported that the large factory occupiers have co-operated willingly in the carrying out of the order (p. 4). Eight other orders (to particular factories) respecting dust extraction and ventilation were issued during the year (p. 14).

As in 1925, practically all the lifts in the State were inspected during the year (p. 5) ; there were 1,070 (1,047) lifts on the register (p. 23). Complete inspections of steam boilers were made in 892 (886) cases. " leaving only a very few boilers in actual use to be inspected " (pp. 5, 23). Nineteen (17) examinations were held for the engine-driver's and boiler attendant's certificates, and 124 (84) candidates passed (p. 24). Notices of intention to erect scaffolding were received from builders in 3,289 (4,114) cases ; it is stated that the provisions of the Scaffolding Acts " have been reasonably enforced during the year " (pp. 5, 24).

No information is given respecting hygiene and welfare work, except the numbers of orders relating to dust prevention which are mentioned above, and those relating to sanitary and washing accommodation — 34 orders in 1925 (p. 14). Particulars are given of the average weekly wages paid to employees of various ages in different industries and occupations (pp. 8-10), of the amount of overtime of which the inspec-

[1] The figures in brackets are those for 1924.
[2] The returns for shops are for the year ended 31 July 1925.

torate was notified (p. 10), of the licences issued for the employment of aged, slow, infirm, and inexperienced workers at a wage below the standard rate (p. 11), and of the employment of probationers and apprentices (p. 12). It is stated that the last-mentioned table is unreliable, owing to the absence of any obligation upon employers to report the premature cancellation of indentures. The correct total number of apprentices is given as 1,430 — 1,187 male and 243 female workers, compared with 1,062 and 184 respectively in 1924 (p. 3).

The average weekly wage paid to adult men is returned at £5 3s. 9d. (£4 18s. 8d.), and that to adult women at £2 12s. 6d. (£2 9s. 10d.), the increase in both cases being mainly due to the increase in the living wage declared by the Board of Industry (pp. 3, 10). Particulars are given of the arrears of wages and overtime pay recovered by the Department for employees under determinations and awards (p. 15); most of the complaints received by the Department during the year related to underpayment of wages (p. 14). The Chief Inspector notes that considerable difficulty has been experienced in enforcing determinations of industrial boards, owing to the failure of employers in many cases to keep a correct record of the ages of young persons employed by them who come within the scope of such determinations (p. 5).

Queensland[1]

The annual report for the year 1925-1926 of the Queensland Director of Labour consists almost entirely of statistical tables. As usual, the report is drawn up for the year ended 30 June 1926, but most of the tables are for the year ended 31 March 1926.

The strength of the inspection staff is not indicated, but it is noted that there are fifteen districts under the whole of the Factories and Shops Acts, and 108 (109)[2] districts to which only Part VIII of the Acts (relating to the early closing of shops) applies (pp. 2, 9). The change in the shops closing districts is due to the amalgamation with the Brisbane district of adjacent urban districts (pp. 4, 9). On 31 March there were 3,991 (3,915) factories and 9,542 (9,253) shops on the register of the inspectorate (pp. 2, 4). At the same date 42,057 (40,361) persons were employed in the registered factories and 27,490 (26,087) persons in 4,389 (4,155) of the registered shops; the remainder of the shops were without employees (pp. 2, 4). The factories and shops are classified by trades, and the number of male and female employees shown for each class; the geographical distribution of the employees in factories and shops respectively is also shown (pp. 14-26). About one-fourth of the factory employees and over half of the shop employees in the Brisbane district were girls and women. The sex distribution of employees in shops outside Brisbane is not recorded. Certificates of fitness for employment were issued during the year ended 31 March 1926 to 259

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[1] Queensland. Department of Labour: *Report of the Director of Labour and Chief Inspector of Factories and Shops for Year ended 30 June 1926*. Brisbane, Govt. Printer, 1926. 37 pp.

[2] The figures in brackets are those for 1924-1925. For summary of 1924-1925 report cf. *International Labour Review*, Vol. XIII, No. 2, Feb. 1926, p. 254.

(274) boys and 789 (537) girls in the Brisbane district and to 98 (87) boys and 82 (60) girls in other districts[1]. These certificates are classified by industries; the clothing trades account for a large proportion of them (pp. 13-14).

The number of inspections effected during the year is not stated, but it is noted that "employers generally observe the requirements of the Acts most willingly, and readily accept the suggestions and advice of the inspectors", though constant supervision is found necessary in respect of the sale of various commodities after the closing hours prescribed for them (p. 4). During the year ended 30 June 1926, 92 (96) prosecutions were instituted for failure to close shops at the proper time (p. 10). The total number of prosecutions for offences of all kinds was 711 (975), convictions being obtained in 679 (935) cases. Of these prosecutions, 108 (131) were under the Factories and Shops Acts; this total includes the cases in respect of the closing of shops which are mentioned above. There were 3 (9) prosecutions under the Apprenticeship Act[2], and 7 under the Electrical Workers Act[3] for employing electrical workers without a licence (pp. 9-10).

Most of the information respecting conditions of employment relates to wages, overtime and accidents. In factories in the Brisbane district (which was enlarged in 1925-1926), 23,660½ (30,620¼) hours' overtime were worked during the year ending 31 March 1926 by female employees; and in shops covered by the Factories and Shops Acts, 1,681 (1,553) male and 1,124 (1,021) female employees worked 27,624 (24,37 1/2) and 13,107 (11,203¾) hours' overtime respectively (p. 12). There was an increase in the number of accidents — 412, as compared with 372 in 1924-1925[4]. None of these accidents were fatal; 49 are described as "serious". They are classified by districts, and by industries in each district; 222 (216) occurred in engineering and 26 (24) in sawmilling (p. 13).

As in previous years, the report contains a list of registered trade unions (as at 30 June 1926; pp. 11-12) and an account of the working of the Labour Exchanges Act, 1915 (pp. 3-4, 6-9). There were 58,761 (117,496) applications for employment during the year ended 30 June 1926; vacancies were notified for 15,013 (13,338) persons, and 14,974 (13,095) persons were placed — three-fifths of them on government work. Half the unemployed persons who registered were labourers of various kinds (p. 9). As in previous years, there was a shortage of domestic servants; this is attributed to the fact that domestic service is not regulated by industrial awards in respect of wages and conditions of work, though similar service in hotels, boarding houses, etc. is so regulated (p. 3).

A large part of the report is devoted to the usual detailed statement of the rates of wages payable under arbitration awards in each year

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[1] The 1924-1925 figures for districts other than Brisbane are for the year ended 30 June 1925.

[2] *Legislative Series*, 1924, Austral. 3.

[3] 14 Geo. V (1923), c. 22.

[4] The figure for 1925-1926 is for the year ended 31 March, and that for 1924-1925 is for the year ended 30 June.

from 1921 to 1926 (pp. 27-37). During the year under report there were 298 (289) awards in operation for various trades (p. 2). The introduction of the universal 44-hour week entailed the amendment of many awards, and therefore necessitated increased supervision for a time. Breaches of awards were frequent, though in the country districts this was largely due to ignorance on the part both of employers and of employees of the terms of the awards in force (p. 4). Prosecutions were instituted under the Industrial Arbitration Acts[1] in 441 (345) cases, and arrears of wages amounting to £9,860 were recovered (pp. 5, 9-11).

The housing accommodation provided for pastoral and sugar workers continued to improve on the whole, though in 1926 it was found necessary to grant many permits for the use of accommodation not normally considered suitable. This was necessitated by the exceptional drought, which made it impossible for many sheep-owners to take their flocks to the usual shearing centres, so that the shearing had to be done at home with such accommodation as might be available (pp. 4-5). There were 15 (23) prosecutions under the Workers' Accommodation Acts, and 13 convictions were secured (pp. 9-10).

Tasmania[2]

The Industrial Department is responsible for the enforcement of the Acts relating to factories, wages boards, shops, workers' compensation, and footwear (stamping with particulars of materials), and also for supervision of State immigration (placed in its charge as from 17 September 1924) and for conducting employment exchanges and agencies (p. 3). As in 1924-1925[3], most of the immigrants in 1925-1926 were received under the scheme of assisted passages for persons nominated by residents in Tasmania; 154 (155)[4] settlers arrived during the year under this scheme (p. 25).

As usual, the annual report for 1925-1926 consists almost exclusively of statistical tables. There was a further decrease in the number of factories on the register — 1,048 (1,077) at the end of June 1926 (1,126 at the end of 1925, compared with 1,176 at the end of the preceding year) (p. 3). In addition, 670 (395) small shops were registered (p. 24). The licences issued to assistants in these shops numbered 305, while the factories employed 9,099 (9,854) persons. The returns of industrial establishments and employees are as usual classified in 63 trade groups, the employees in each group being further classified by sex and age — each year from 14 to 20 and a single group for adults (pp. 5-7). Of the total number of employees, 7,123 (7,039) were male and 1,976 (2,093) female; the 687 (722) working employers are not classified by sex. As in the two previous years, the largest group was that of trades connected

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[1] *Legislative Series*, 1923, Austral. 1; 1924, Austral. 2; 1925, Austral. 6.

[2] Tasmania. Industrial Department: *Eleventh Annual Report for 1925-1926 on Factories, Wages Boards, Shops, etc.* By the Chief Inspector of Factories. Hobart, Govt. Printer, 1926. 25 pp.

[3] For summary of 1924-1925 report cf. *International Labour Review*, Vol. XIV, No. 5, Nov. 1926, p. 731.

[4] The figures in brackets are those for 1924-1925.

with food and drink, employing 2,292 (2,400) persons in addition to 194 (228) working employers ; the clothing and textile industries came next, with 1,684 employees and 57 working employers (pp. 5-6).

As in 1924-1925, the report includes tables of the factories registered during the latter half of the year under report, showing the amount of registration fees, the numbers of working employers and employees of each sex, and the nature and horse-power of the motive force used, in each municipality (p. 8), and the motive force and total number of employees and working employers in each trade (p. 9). A further table shows the number of factories of various sizes in each trade group ; only 8 (7) employed over 100 persons, and 613 (617) employed less than four persons (p. 11).

Orders were issued for the remedying of defects in factories in 208 (190) cases. Over one-fourth of these orders related to the provision and maintenance of sanitary accommodation, and the same proportion to the cleanliness and whitewashing of premises (p. 13).

Full returns are given of the wages paid and standard weekly hours in the various grades in each industry (pp. 14-20). As in 1924-1925, the 48-hour week was most frequent, but many groups had a 44-hour week, and clerks usually had a normal week of 38 hours. In threshing a 62-hour week was authorised. Four (12) wages boards issued new determinations during the year (p. 23). Arrears of wages were recovered by the Department on behalf of 310 (287) employees, to the amount of over £1,323 (£1,100) (p. 23). Particulars are given for each industrial group of the persons licensed to work for less than the standard rate (pp. 21-22).

The two State employment exchanges registered 2,212 (3,135) applicants for employment during 1925-1926, in addition to 913 (301) left on the register at the end of 1924-1925, and placed 2,411 (2,523) persons in employment, leaving somewhat fewer unsatisfied applicants than at the end of the previous year. Most of those remaining unemployed were unskilled labourers (p. 25).

Vocational Education in China

Legislation

With a view to developing the commercial and industrial resources of the country, training schools of three different grades — primary, secondary, and advanced — were set up in China by an Imperial Order of 1905. The Order also provided for the establishment of apprenticeship schools, of training schools for teachers of industrial subjects, and of supplementary courses of study for students having left school.

Though the instruction so organised was of a practical character, it could not properly be described as vocational. It was, indeed, principally intended for youths who had already reached a certain educational level and were at the same time in a position to continue their studies.

In the second year of the Chinese Republic (1913) a Decree was promulgated by which the system was slightly modified ; it divided the trade schools into two groups, classified as (A) and (B), and in addition provided for the establishment of vocational schools for girls. The expression " vocational schools " thus appeared for the first time in connection with Chinese education. In spite of this revision, the instruction given was hardly more " vocational " than before, since the new system definitely sacrificed practice to theory.

In October 1922 a Conference was held by the Federal Association for Education — a private body representing all parts of China — which met in Shantung to study the question of general educational reform. During the following month a Decree was promulgated by the President of the Republic setting up a new system of public instruction which is still in force[1]. The provisions for vocational training are as follows :

(1) For elementary school pupils in senior classes (i.e. during the last two years of the six-year school attendance period laid down for schools of that grade) preparatory vocational courses may be established, account being taken of social conditions in the district.

(2) For secondary school pupils in junior classes (i.e. during the first three years of the six-year school attendance period laid down for schools of that grade) vocational courses may be established, account being taken of local needs.

(3) For secondary school pupils in senior classes (i.e. during the last three years of the school attendance period) courses of agricultural, industrial, commercial and housewifery instruction, or some of them, may be arranged, account being taken of social conditions in the district.

The old trade schools of group (A) are either converted into vocational schools or are reorganised so as to afford advanced instruction in agriculture, industry, commerce and so on ; in the latter case they are attached to the secondary schools.

(4) The establishment of vocational schools and the duration of the courses given vary according to social conditions in the district.

The old trade schools of group (B) are also converted into vocational schools, open to elementary school pupils who have completed their studies in the senior classes, and in some cases to those in the junior classes, provided that they have reached the minimum age of admission.

(5) Special courses may be given in certain schools for training teachers of vocational subjects.

(6) Universities and colleges may institute special courses of vocational instruction.

The advantage of the new system lies in the fact that it brings vocational training within the reach of larger numbers by introducing

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[1] *Kiao Yu Za Tsi (Chinese Educational Review).*

it in the elementary schools and by increasing the facilities for attendance at purely vocational schools[1].

In 1916, according to the Ministry of Education, there were 531 vocational schools ; the National Association of Vocational Education gives the total for the year 1921 as 719, and for 1922 as 1,209[2]. From 1921 to 1922, therefore, there was an increase of 70 per cent. ; and the multiplication and development of vocational schools has continued since then.

Private Initiative

Prior to the reform, the attention of private initiative had already been turned to vocational training.

In 1917 the National Association for Vocational Education was founded at Shanghai ; it has thousands of members from all the provinces in China and even some in foreign countries. Although a private association, it receives a subsidy from various provincial governments, and is of considerable importance. Its object is to encourage the organisation of the following :

(1) Vocational courses in elementary schools, especially manual instruction for boys and dressmaking for girls ; also courses of gardening in rural schools.

(2) Courses of industrial, agricultural, and commercial instruction in secondary schools and in elementary teachers' training schools.

(3) Courses of vocational instruction in state undertakings.

(4) Elementary vocational schools.

The Association's methods of action are of various kinds. It conducts propaganda in newspapers throughout the country, arranges lectures and distributes information on the subject of vocational training, undertakes enquiries into the social, industrial, and agricultural conditions of the dountry, and centralises the information thus obtained ; it issues periodicals and other works relative to vocational training, finds employment for young pupils leaving the various schools, and advises the schools and other vocational organisations in the choice of teachers. It also gives advice to persons desiring to set up vocational schools, and to young persons wishing to enter them as pupils. In addition, a vocational guidance committee and a labour museum are attached to it.

By way of experiment, the Association itself has established several vocational schools, of which the oldest and best organised is the Chung Hwa vocational school at Shanghai. Trade courses are held there in iron working, wood working, button making, etc.; there is a practice workshop for each of these courses. In addition, it has been decided to establish continuation courses and evening courses for pupils over 14 years of age who are already in employment.

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[1] *First Semi-Annual Report of the National Association of Vocational Education of China*, 1922.

[2] *Ibid.* ; cf. also Paul C. Fugh : " Reconstruction of the Chinese Rural Elementary School Curriculum ", in *The Chinese Social and Political Science Review*, 1925.

In February 1922 an exhibition of pupils' work was held at this school ; more than fifty schools were represented, belonging to eight different provinces.

An association for vocational training has been founded in Hupeh province, where a wealthy manufacturer gave a sum of 20,000 dollars for that purpose[1]. This association has cotton-weaving workshops, a model farm, gardens and playing fields.

In addition to these general institutions, certain special schools have been organised for women and children. There are two vocational schools for women and girls at Nanking : the Hsin Tek vocational school organised by missionaries, and the vocational school for women and girls, founded about a year ago and intended to provide for the education of women and girls belonging to the poorer classes[2]. In the latter school, instruction and materials are supplied free of charge, and the pupils also receive an allowance. Weaving and knitting are the principal subjects taught ; the period of training is six months. Sales offices have been established in the town for marketing articles made by the pupils.

The most interesting institution for children is the Hsiang San Home, at Si Chan, near Peking. This was established after the great floods of 1917, when the province of Chih-li was inundated, to provide for the children left by the numerous victims. Since then, the number of inmates has steadily increased, owing to the subsequent floods and famine with which the country has been afflicted. Children are admitted to the Home upon two conditions : (1) their relatives must agree not to remove them, so that they may be peacefully brought up in the Home : (2) the paternal authority must be transferred to the Director of the Home.

This institution possesses two schools, for boys and girls respectively. In each, there are several different grades ; pupils over fourteen years of age devote half the day to manual work, while continuing their general studies. There are vocational courses for children who have completed their elementary studies[3].

Government Initiative in Workers' Education

Government activity in respect of vocational training for workers was first exercised in September 1921 on the initiative of the Ministry of Communications.

In view of the large number of workers (about 50,000) employed on the State Railways, and their social conditions, it was considered that the level both of their moral and of their material existence might be raised by general and vocational education. With this object in view, a preparatory committee was appointed ; as a result of its deliberations, twelve schools for the general and vocational education of the workers were established along the four main lines (the Peking-Hankow, Peking-Mukden, Peking-Sui Yuan and Tientsin-Pukow railways), three schools

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[1] *The Chinese Economic Bulletin*, Sept. 1925.
[2] *Idem*, 5 Dec. 1925.
[3] Hsiung Hsi Ling : *The Hsiang San Children's Home, Western Hills, Peking.*

being allocated to each of them. In addition a system of lectures was organised at the ten principal railway stations of each of these four lines. Central, branch, and itinerant libraries were provided for the workers; and two reviews have been founded, one of which appears weekly and the other once in ten days.

The instruction given varies according to the age of the workers. Those who are over 40 are advised to attend the Sunday lectures; those aged 30 can take special courses after the day's work; and for young workers instruction is provided in general and vocational subjects. The duration of the various courses is from ten to twelve hours weekly; they have been attended by more than 4,000 workers[1].

[1] *Report presented by the Chinese Government to the International Labour Conference* (Seventh Session). Part. I: General and vocational education of Chinese Government Railway Workers. Peking, 1925.

Railway Workers' General and Vocational Education Review, published by the Committee for workers' general and vocational education, set up by the Ministry of Communications.

STATISTICS

Employment and Prices

In the tables below are given for various countries the most recent statistics of employment and unemployment and of the cost of living and retail prices in comparison with those for previous dates.

Employment and Unemployment

Table I giving unemployment statistics shows for certain countries the percentage of workers unemployed. In some cases these percentages are based on data compiled by the trade unions in respect of their members, while in other cases they refer to the workers covered by unemployment insurance laws. For some countries for which no such data are available information is given as to the numbers registered at various dates at the employment exchanges as unemployed or the number of unemployed workers who have received assistance. Table II gives index numbers of employment for certain countries.

In the *Review* for July 1924 and later months an outline was given of the methods by which the statistics given in the tables are compiled, together with particulars of the original sources in which they are published.

Germany : *Reichsarbeitsblatt.*

A new column has been inserted in table I giving the number of unemployed in receipt of state benefit. The statistics cover all wage earners earning less than 6,000 marks a year, with the exception of agricultural workers in relatively stable employment, share fishermen, domestic servants, and apprentices engaged under a written contract for two years.

TABLE I. STATISTICS OF UNEMPLOYMENT

Date (end of month)	Germany					Australia		Belgium			
	Trade unionists				Number of unemployed in receipt of benefit	Trade unionists		Unemployment insurance societies			
	Wholly unemployed		Partially unemployed			Number unemployed	Per cent.	Wholly unemployed		Partially unemployed	
	Number	Per cent.	Number	Per cent.				Number	Per cent.	Number	Per cent.
1925											
March	211,259	5.8	158,681	5.1	465,761	37,836	9.3	9,414	1.5	33,509	5.5
June	130,249	3.5	163,461	5.2	195,005	36,490	10.2	6,483	1.1	29,108	4.8
Sept.	168,657	4.5	268,186	8.5	266,062	29,861	7.9	4,758	0.8	11,034	1.9
Dec.	706,189	19.4	659,949	19.8	1,497,516	34,287	8.1	16,897	2.8	27,494	4.6
1926											
Jan.	815,434	22.6	818,637	22.6	1,763,976	*	*	16,159	2.7	32,017	5.4
Feb.	786,263	22.0	771,405	21.6	2,056,179	*	*	9,616	1.6	18,209	3.1
March	727,312	21.4	736,649	21.7	1,942,048	34,161	8.2	8,489	1.4	16,573	2.8
April	655,537	18.6	673,993	19.1	1,781,509	*	*	7,395	1.2	11,803	2.0
May	639,751	18.1	641,780	18.2	1,744,417	*	*	6,075	1.1	12,643	2.1
June	627,196	18.1	591,536	17.1	1,741,172	24,920	6.7	5,200	0.9	13,148	2.2
July	599,617	17.7	563,823	16.6	1,652,492	*	*	5,158	0.9	10,233	1.7
Aug.	567,541	16.7	511,685	15.0	1,518,127	*	*	7,268	1.2	16,530	2.8
Sept.	513,864	15.2	427,380	12.7	1,394,105	32,871	7.6	6,818	1.1	14,821	2.5
Oct.	476,952	14.2	343,303	10.2	1,308,293	*	*	8,088	1.4	13,295	2.2
Nov.	484,978	14.2	284,774	8.3	1,369,769	*	*	8,217	1.4	14,907	2.5
Dec.	572,653	16.7	249,628	7.3	1,745,559	—	—	15,804	2.6	17,889	3.0
Number on which latest percentages are based	3,419,599				*	434,521		604,589			

The sign * signifies "no figures published". The sign — signifies "figures not yet received".

TABLE I *(cont.)*

Date (end of month)	Austria	Canada		Denmark		Esthonia	Finland	France
	Compulsory insurance	Trade unionists		Trade union unemployment funds		Number unemployed remaining on live register	Number of unemployed registered	Number unemployed in receipt of benefit
	Number unemployed in receipt of benefit	Number unemployed	Per cent.	Number unemployed	Per cent.			
1925								
March	175,580	13,159	8.5	40,055	14.7	2,867	3,502	1,031
June	113,119	9,578	6.1	24,135	9.1	1,771	1,155	626
Sept.	119,004	8,374	5.7	28,509	10.6	883	2,011	618
Dec.	207,835	11,716	7.9	85,944	31.7	3,213	2,176	645
1926								
Jan.	231,361	11,906[1]	8.1	81,100[1]	30.1	3,543	3,832	547
Feb.	228,763	11,993[1]	8.1	74,100[1]	27.5	2,444	3,462	713
March	202,394	11,069	7.3	57,700[1]	21.4	1,916	2,222	543
April	173,115	11,093	7.3	44,700[1]	16.6	2,249	1,961	442
May	151,821	7,442	4.9	39,900[1]	14.8	1,839	1,273	386
June	150,981	5,965	4.1	42,600[1]	15.8	1,051	924	489
July	152,495	3,226[1]	2.3	45,800[1]	17.0	893	949	342
Aug.	151,054	3,384[1]	2.5	46,900[1]	17.0	731	1,212	369
Sept.	148,111	4,837	3.3	45,300[1]	16.8	811	1,325	335
Oct.	151,183	3,929[1]	2.6	49,800[1]	18.5	2,309	1,813	429
Nov.	168,757	—	4.7	59,800[1]	22.1	—	2,330	571
Dec.	205,350	—	—	88,700[1]	32.7	—	2,172	17,178
Number on which latest percentages are based	*	151,130		271,303		*	*	*

TABLE I *(cont.)*

Date (end of month)	Great Britain and Northern Ireland				Hungary		Irish Free State		Italy	
	Trade unionists		Compulsory insurance		Trade unionists		Compulsory insurance		Number of unemployed registered	
	Number unemployed	Per cent.	Number unemployed	Per cent.	Number unemployed	Per cent.	Number unemployed	Per cent.	Wholly unempl.	Partially unempl.
1925										
March	88,551	9.0	1,307,937	11.4	36,873	20.5	59,362	23.3	142,552	14,282
June	120,754	12.3	1,406,155	12.2	34,015	19.0	44,795	17.6	85,532	6,944
Sept.	111,910	11.4	1,423,566	12.0	25,488	14.3	29,837	11.7	82,764	7,223
Dec.	107,346	11.0	1,243,087	10.4	26,711	16.4	35,858	14.1	122,200	8,870
1926										
Jan.	103,051	10.6	1,317,535	11.0	28,378	17.4	38,161	15.0	156,139	9,284
Feb.	101,870	10.4	1,247,823	10.4	29,135	18.7	38,670	15.2	125,803	8,016
March	99,271	10.1	1,171,136	9.8	29,218	19.1	34,331	13.5	109,471	8,333
April	*	10.0	1,093,829	9.1	28,776	18.8	32,935	13.0	98,216	6,793
May	109,947	13.2	1,719,369	14.3	27,598	18.5	32,668	12.8	98,490	8,600
June	107,597	12.9	1,751,133	14.6	25,558	16.7	31,248	12.3	83,264	6,650
July	108,080	13.2	1,737 260	14.6	24,041	15.7	27,740	11.3	79,678	26,756
Aug.	110,520	13.3	1,684,507	14.2	22,756	15.0	25,390	10.3	83,090	26,634
Sept.	112,782	13.6	1,648,322	13.9	19,849	13.1	25,063	10.2	89,434	14,519
Oct.	112,195	13.6	1,686,886	13.6	18,680	12.4	25,499	10.4	112,922	10,839
Nov.	108,202	13.2	1,630,142	13.5	18,576	12.3	26,984	11.0	148,821	6 618
Dec.	97,671	12,2	1,431,840	11.9	20,712	15,0	27,014	11.0	181,493	10,216
Number on which latest percentages are based	801,878		12,041,000		153,000		246,134		*	

[1] Approximate figures. [2] Provisional figures.
The sign * signifies "no figures published". The sign — signifies "figures not yet received".

TABLE I (*cont.*)

Date (end of month)	Latvia	Norway		New Zealand		Netherlands	
	Number unemployed remaining on live register	Trade unionists (10 unions)		Trade unionists		Unemployment insurance societies	
		Number unemployed	Per cent.	Number unemployed	Per cent.	Number unemployed	Per cent.
1925							
March	4,314	4,018	11.1	*	*	25,718	9.4
June	1,169	3,256	8.9	*	*	18,243	6.6
Sept.	910	4,934	13.5	*	*	21,182	7.7
Dec.	5,097	9,363	26.1	2,437	5.5	44,660	16.0
1926							
Jan.	4,990	9,066	25.5	*	*	49,633	17.7
Feb.	4,702	8,923	25.0	2,357	5.0	28,999	10.5
March	3,659	9,237	25.9	*	*	22,338	7.9
April	2,000	9,212	26.0	*	*	18,414	6.5
May	1,383	8,316	23.7	3,049	6.6	17,904	6.3
June	936	7,751	22.1	*	*	16,983	5.9
July	722	7,137	20.4	*	*	19,683	6.9
Aug.	897	7,462	21.4	3,912	8.3	20,805	7.2
Sept.	932	7,719	22.3	*	*	20,695	7.2
Oct.	2,430	8,425	24.4	*	*	21,341	7.4
Nov.	5,149	—	—	3,172	6.7	25,396	9.2
Dec.	5,234	—	—	*	*	—	—
Number on which latest percentages are based	*	34,459		47,147		267,118[2]	

TABLE I (*cont.*)

Date (end of month)	Poland	Russia	Sweden		Switzerland		Czechoslovakia	
	Number unemployed registered	Number unemployed remaining on live register	Trade unionists		Number wholly unemployed registered	Unemployment funds	Trade union insurance funds	
			Number unemployed	Per cent.		Per cent. unemployed	Number unemployed in receipt of benefit	Per cent.
1925								
March	183,730	*	25,824	12.0	10,185	*	*	*
June	171,650	1,100,000	17,709	8.2	8,084	*	6,086	0.6
Sept.	195,044	1,055,000	19,802	8.5	10,356	*	9,775	0.9
Dec.	311,090	951,200	44,128	19.5	17,027	*	17,196	1.6
1926								
Jan.	359,119	988,000	34,601	15.8	20,525		22,738	2.1
Feb.	358,002	1,005,600	32,695	14.4	18,138	*	25,333	2.3
March	345,011	1,056,400	31,712	14.7	14,307	2.7	27,535	2.5
April	320,512	1,070,900	29,220	12.2	11,320	*	30,056	2.7
May	304,113	1,114,200	22,413	9.7	10,703	*	33,670	3.0
June	288,510	1,065,500	22,715	9.5	10,272	2.4	40,024	3.4
July	263,540	1,030,100	20,206	8.5	11,013	*	46,052	4.1
Aug.	241,790	1,023,700	19,511	8.2	11,818	*	46,129	4.0
Sept.	213,690	—	22,114	9.1	12,803	2.8	42,601	3.7
Oct.	196,586	—	28,390	11.4	14,253	*	—	—
Nov.	—	—	33,193	12.9	16,366	*	—	—
Dec.	—	—	—	19.1	17,900	—	—	—
Number on which latest percentages are based	*	*	258,029		*	163,448	1,151,146	

[1] Figures for November. [2] Provisional figures.

The sign * signifies "no figures published". The sign — signifies "figures not yet received

TABLE II. STATISTICS OF EMPLOYMENT

Date (end of month)	Germany[1]	Canada[1]	Esthonia	United States	Switzerland
	Index number of employment				
	Membership of sickness funds in Dec. 1921=100	Number employed on 17 Jan. 1920=100	Number employed in preceding month=100	Average number employed in 1923=100	Number employed in Sept. 1924=100
1925					
March	103.6	87.2	•	92.3	94.1
June	109.6	96.8	•	90.1	98.8
Sept.	108.6	98.3	•	90.9	96.1
Dec.	96.4	89.6	•	92.6	94.8
1926					
Jan.	93.4	90.7	100.0	92.3	•
Feb.	93.4	91.5	101.2	93.3	•
March	94.3	91.4	99.6	93.7	95.2
April	97.7	94.3	97.9	92.8	•
May	98.8	101.0	106.0	91.7	•
June	98.9	103.7	100.9	91.3	96.5
July	99.2	104.2	—	89.8	•
Aug.	99.8	104.9	—	90.7	•
Sept.	100.4	105.2	—	92.2	95.3
Oct.	101.2	102.8	—	92.5	•
Nov.	101.2	101.1	—	91.4	•
Déc.	96.4	94.8	—	—	—
Number of persons on which latest figures are based	13,453,436	781,559	32,874	3,026,330	186,232

[1] The figures relate to the 1st of the following month.

The sign • signifies "no figures published". The sign — signifies "figures not yet received"

Cost of Living and Retail Prices

Tables I to V give for a number of countries index numbers of the cost of living, food, clothing, heating and lighting, and rent. The sources and methods of compilation of the statistics are given in the *Review* for July 1924 and later months.

Esthonia : *Eesti statistika ilmub katskorda kuus.*

As a result of an enquiry carried out at Tallinn in October 1926, the Esthonian Central Statistical Bureau has compiled a workers' family budget, which it has used to calculate a new series of index numbers. The general index number is a weighted arithmetic mean of 9 group index numbers; these groups and the weights attached to them are as follows : foodstuffs, 58.5 ; rent, 7.5 ; heating and lighting, 5.8 ; clothing, 17 ; personal hygiene and cleaning, 2.7 ; travelling expenses and postage, 0.7 ; intellectual needs, 2.7 ; amusements, 2.8 ; miscellaneous, 2.3. As before the base is 1922 = 100.

TABLE I. COST-OF-LIVING INDEX NUMBERS

(Base, as far as possible, July 1914 = 100)

Country	South Africa (Union)	Germany	Australia	Austria [1]	Belgium [2]	Bulgaria	Canada	Chile [3]	Denmark	Danzig	Egypt
Towns and localities	9	72	6	Vienna	59	12	60	Chile	100	Danzig	Cairo
1925 Nov.	131	141	*	—	141	2784	154	192	*	142	164
Dec.	131	141	—	100	143	2871	155	186	*	138	164
1926 Jan.	131	140	*	100	139	2852	154	185	194	135	162
Feb	131	139	*	99	140	2849	154	179	*	134	163
Mar.	131	138	158	98	137	2796	153	179	*	132	163
April	131	140	*	98	140	2726	152	179	*	134	162
May	132	140	*	97	147	2888	150	181	*	133	161
June	131	140	162	99	155	2793	150	183	*	133	159
July	130	142	*	98	174	2790	150	190	184	137	159
Aug.	130	142	*	99	182	2712	149	192	*	135	161
Sept.	130	142	159	99	179	2677	148	187	*	135	160
Oct.	131	142	*	99	188	—	150	186	*	135	161
Nov.	131	144	*	99	196	—	151	184	*	136	156
Dec.	129	144	—	100	199	—	—	—	*	139	—

Country	Esthonia [4]	United States [3]	Finland	France	Great Britain	Greece	Hungary [5]	India	Irish Free State	Italy	Latvia	Lithuania [3]
Towns and localities	Tallinn	32	21	Paris	630	Athens	Budapest	Bombay	105	Milan	Riga	84
1925 Nov.	131	*	1227	*	177	1610	14,274	155	*	643	116	147
Dec.	133	178	1197	421	175	1644	14,743	155	*	649	117	144
1926 Jan.	135	*	1166	*	173	1673	14,418	154	188	665	118	142
Feb.	135	*	1175	*	172	1664	14,625	155	*	661	118	142
Mar.	134	*	1172	451	168	1706	14,728	153	*	654	118	142
April	136	*	1163	*	167	1731	14,512	153	180	642	117	140
May	136	*	1159	*	168	1741	14,623	155	*	652	119	141
June	136	175	1175	485	170	1791	14,704	157	*	650	119	141
July	136	*	1183	*	170	1808	14,823	155	182	649	118	140
Aug.	135	*	1213	*	172	1818	14,538	155	*	652	115	139
Sept.	130	*	1203	539	174	1833	14,593	155	*	647	112	139
Oct.	129	*	1197	*	179	1862	14,883	154	189	672	112	139
Nov.	129	*	1193	*	179	1895	15,293	156	*	657	111	141
Dec.	130	—	1197	545	175	1889	15,204	156	*	657	114	143

Country	Luxemburg	Norway	New Zealand	Netherlands [6]	Peru [2]	Poland	Roumania	Russia [3]	Sweden	Switzerland	Czechoslovakia
Towns and localities	Luxemburg	31	4	Amsterdam	Lima	Warsaw	Whole country	229	49	33	Prague
1925 Nov	535	*	164	*	196	157	3275	205	*	167	700
Dec.	528	236	*	177	197	173	3370	211	174	167	703
1926 Jan.	533	*	*	*	197	170	3335	220	*	166	707
Feb.	522	*	162	*	194	171	3320	225	*	164	699
Mar.	527	227	*	169	196	169	3310	229	173	163	687
April	546	*	*	*	193	176	3327	239	*	162	685
May	578	*	163	*	195	183	3370	233	*	162	692
June	609	221	*	171	197	183	3436	227	172	162	693
July	686	*	*	*	194	177	3340	228	*	162	718
Aug.	688	*	163	*	195	181	3455	222	*	161	722
Sept.	711	217	*	164	190	188	3460	220	171	161	722
Oct.	727	*	*	*	188	190	3600	224	*	161	726
Nov	734	*	162	*	189	195	3700	—	*	161	734
Dec.	746	213	*	—	189	197	3760	—	171	161	735

[1] 1925 = 100. [2] 1921 = 100. [3] 1913 = 100. [4] 1922 = 100. [5] 1913 = 1. [6] 1911-1913 = 100.
The sign * signifies " no figures published ". The sign — signifies " figures not yet received ".

TABLE II. FOOD INDEX NUMBERS

(Base, as far as possible, July 1914 = 100)

Country	South Africa (Un ou)	Germany	Australia	Austria [1]	Belgium [2]	Bulgaria	Canada	Denmark	Egypt	Spain	Esthonia [3]
Towns and localities	9	72	30	Vienna	59	12	60	100	Cairo	Madrid	Tallinn
1925 Nov.	117	147	*	—	144	2769	156	*	164	186	129
Dec.	116	146	156	100	147	2866	157	*	162	183	133
1926 Jan.	116	142	*	100	142	2853	155	177	161	188	137
Feb.	117	142	*	98	142	2855	154	*	159	183	138
Mar.	118	141	159	96	138	2799	153	*	161	185	136
April	119	142	*	96	142	2731	152	*	161	187	139
May	119	142	*	95	152	2909	149	*	160	183	139
June	118	143	162	98	161	2808	149	*	157	183	139
July	117	145	*	97	185	2803	150	159	158	186	139
Aug.	117	146	*	98	193	2720	147	*	159	178	138
Sept.	117	150	156	98	186	2680	147	*	157	187	128
Oct.	120	145	*	98	197	—	148	*	160	190	127
Nov.	119	148	*	99	206	—	151	*	157	191	127
Dec.	117	150	—	100	208	—	—	*	—	193	128

Country	United States	Finland	France	Great Britain	Greece	Hungary [4]	India	Irish Free State	Italy
Towns and localities	51	21	Paris	630	Athens	Budapest	Bombay	105	Milan
1925 Nov.	163	1164	444	714	1676	15,904	151	*	649
Dec.	162	1138	463	171	1718	16,714	151	*	660
1926 Jan.	160	1090	480	168	1760	16,087	150	187	681
Feb.	158	1106	495	165	1738	16,471	151	*	676
Mar.	156	1100	497	159	1805	16,668	150	*	654
April	159	1085	503	158	1821	16,322	150	175	645
May	157	1078	522	158	1817	16,122	152	*	664
June	156	1090	544	161	1870	16,298	155	*	657
July	153	1105	574	161	1849	16,546	153	174	654
Aug.	152	1153	587	162	1871	15,997	152	*	660
Sept.	155	1137	590	163	1890	16,189	153	*	652
Oct.	156	1126	624	169	1933	16,431	152	178	654
Nov.	158	1114	628	169	1986	16,783	154	*	630
Dec.	158	1110	599	167	1973	16,622	155	*	631

Country	Latvia	Norway	New Zealand	Peru [5]	Poland	Russia [5]	Sweden	Switzerland	Czechoslovakia
Towns and localities	Riga	31	4	Lima	Warsaw	229	49	38	Prague
1925 Nov.	98	223	156	172	178	186	165	168	790
Dec.	100	221	154	172	204	193	163	167	796
1926 Jan.	103	216	154	175	191	205	161	165	800
Feb.	103	212	153	170	195	211	159	163	787
Mar.	103	205	152	171	189	212	158	161	767
April	101	198	151	166	204	225	157	161	761
May	103	195	151	169	214	218	156	159	774
June	103	194	151	172	213	212	156	159	775
July	103	198	149	172	207	213	156	159	808
Aug.	97	196	149	174	213	204	155	157	817
Sept.	94	193	148	167	227	200	156	158	810
Oct.	92	191	147	164	232	—	155	160	823
Nov.	91	186	146	166	244	—	155	159	837
Dec	94	184	149	167	247	—	155	159	840

[1] 1925 = 100. 1921 = 100. [3] 1922 = 100. [4] 1913 = 1. [5] 1913 = 100.
The sign * signifies " no figures published ". The sign — signifies " figures not yet received "

Country	Germany	Austria[1]	Belgium[2]	Canada	Denmark	Spain	Esthonia[3]	United States	Finland	France	Great Britain	Hungary[4]	India	Irish Free State	Italy	Latvia	Norway	New Zealand	Poland	Russia[5]	Sweden	Switzerland	Czechoslovakia
Towns and localities	72	Vienna	59	60	100	Madrid	Tallinn	32	21	Paris	630	Budapest	Bombay	105	Milan	Riga	31	4	Warsaw	220	49	33	Prague
TABLE III. CLOTHING INDEX NUMBERS *(Base, as far as possible, July 1914 = 100)*																							
1926 Jan.	171	100	144	*	230	*	119	*	1043	*	225	16,024	172	206	702	122	*	*	251	289	*	179	1001
Feb.	169	100	145	*	*	*	119	*	1043	*	225	18,552	174	*	702	122	*	157	251	290	*	179	1001
Mar.	168	99	144	*	*	*	119	*	1044	524	223	18,552	175	*	702	122	213	*	251	299	188	179	994
April	167	99	145	*	*	*	119	*	1049	*	223	18,502	170	205	702	122	*	*	251	302	*	172	994
May	165	99	151	*	*	*	119	*	1049	*	223	18,273	162	*	691	122	*	156	272	303	*	172	994
June	164	99	155	*	*	*	118	168	1047	577	220	18,273	160	*	692	122	207	*	272	301	187	172	994
July	163	99	167	*	210	*	118	*	1044	*	220	18,273	160	205	692	122	*	*	254	300	*	172	994
Aug.	161	99	173	*	*	*	118	*	1039	*	220	18,273	160	*	692	122	*	154	254	298	*	172	994
Sept.	160	98	179	*	*	*	118	*	1039	635	220	17,915	159	*	692	122	200	*	256	299	184	172	994
Oct.	160	98	186	*	*	*	118	*	1037	*	218	17,915	156	205	711	122	*	*	256	—	*	166	982
Nov.	158	98	191	*	*	*	118	*	1035	*	218	17,915	148	*	709	122	*	154	256	—	*	166	982
Dec.	158	98	199	*	*	*	—	*	1035	616	218	—	—	*	709	122	—	*	256	—	182	166	982
TABLE IV. HEATING AND LIGHTING INDEX NUMBERS *(Base, as far as possible, July 1914 = 100)*																							
1926 Jan.	143	100	114	184	227	171	91	*	1254	*	185	18,094	165	197	516	367	*	*	170	212	172	149	807
Feb	143	100	116	180	*	173	92	*	1243	*	185	17,926	165	*	505	367	*	176	160	217	171	148	807
Mar.	143	100	115	179	*	168	92	*	1248	447	185	17 926	165	*	505	367	208	*	165	234	170	147	805
April	142	99	116	180	*	169	92	*	1248	*	185	17,674	164	195	505	367	*	*	160	238	170	146	805
May	140	99	118	177	*	171	92	*	1250	*	190	17,674	164	*	505	367	*	176	161	226	167	145	805
June	140	97	129	176	*	176	92	181	1254	452	195	17,590	164	*	512	367	201	*	160	214	168	145	805
July	141	99	142	175	215	177	88	*	1238	*	200	17,506	164	234	512	367	*	*	158	217	167	145	805
Aug.	141	100	159	175	*	174	92	*	1242	*	215	17,506	164	*	512	367	*	177	176	226	166	144	805
Sept.	143	100	163	176	*	177	95	*	1257	541	230	17,506	164	*	512	367	208	*	182	233	166	144	810
Oct.	144	103	179	176	*	172	95	*	1276	*	255	18,933	164	293	565	358	*	*	196	—	170	145	814
Nov.	144	105	197	—	*	182	94	*	1349	*	250	19,394	166	*	565	359	*	177	188	—	188	146	814
Dec.	144	105	206	—	*	189	—	—	1389	577	215	—	—	*	565	410	—	*	188	—	186	146	814
TABLE V. RENT INDEX NUMBERS *(Base, as far as possible, July 1914 = 100)*																							
1926 Jan.	91	100	153	142	178	*	175	*	1266	*	148	6,597	172	127	477	80	*	*	72	*	*	163	250
Feb.	91	102	153	143	*	*	175	*	1266	*	148	6,960	172	*	477	80	*	174	72	*	*	163	250
Mar.	91	105	153	143	*	*	175	*	1266	920	148	6,960	172	*	477	80	179	*	72	*	188	163	250
April	97	105	154	142	*	*	175	*	1266	*	149	6,960	172	127	477	80	*	*	76	*	*	163	256
May	99	109	154	143	*	*	175	*	1266	*	149	7,975	172	*	477	80	*	178	76	*	*	167	256
June	100	118	155	143	*	*	175	165	1334	250	150	7,975	172	*	477	80	179	*	76	*	188	167	256
July	104	118	157	143	185	*	175	*	1334	*	150	7,975	172	127	477	80	*	*	76	*	*	167	256
Aug.	105	118	161	142	*	*	175	*	1334	*	150	7,975	172	*	477	80	*	182	76	*	*	167	256
Sept.	105	118	162	142	*	*	175	*	1334	250	150	7,975	172	*	477	70	179	*	76	*	188	167	256
Oct.	105	118	165	142	*	*	175	*	1334	*	150	7,975	172	127	638	78	*	*	76	*	*	167	256
Nov.	105	118	166	—	*	*	175	*	1334	*	150	8,700	172	*	638	78	*	182	76	*	*	167	256
Dec.	106	118	166	—	*	*	—	—	1334	250	151	—	—	*	638	78	—	*	76	*	188	167	256

[1] 1925 = 100. [2] 1921 = 100. [3] 1922 = 100. [4] 1913 = 1. [5] 1918 = 100. The sign * signifies "no figures published". The sign — signifies "figures not yet received."

Wage Rates and Retail Prices in Various Cities

Tables I and II below, giving wage and price statistics in various cities at 1 November 1926 or the nearest date for which figures are available, are in continuation of corresponding tables published in the January number of the *Review*[1] which gave data generally for 1 October 1926. Information is given for 18 cities, the figures generally having been supplied to the International Labour Office by the Department of the Central Government or of the Municipality which compiles these data. In certain cases figures have been taken from official publications.

Table I gives money wages, generally based on rates fixed by collective agreements, of typical categories of workers in the building, engineering, furniture-making, and printing and bookbinding industries. The figures are calculated on the basis of 48 hours' work, generally at ordinary time rates. So far as information is available, the amounts of cost-of-living bonuses and family allowances paid in certain cities are included. It should be pointed out that the data are not in all cases strictly comparable, as for some cities for which minimum rates are given the rates actually paid are somewhat higher. In the other cases the figures given are either the actual rates, or minimum rates which differ to a very small extent from the actual rates.

Table II gives the average retail prices of various articles of food which are of importance in the consumption of wage earners and their families.

[1] *International Labour Review*, Vol. XV, No. 1, Jan. 1927, pp. 128-129.

TABLE I. MONEY WAGES CALCULATED ON THE BASIS OF 48 HOURS' WORK AT ORDINARY TIME RATES AT 1 NOVEMBER 1926

Industry and occupation	Amsterdam	Berlin	Brussels	Lodz	London	Madrid	Oslo[6]	Ottawa	Paris	Philadelphia[2]	Prague[6]	Riga	Rome	Stockholm[6]	Sydney[4]	Tallinn	Vienna	Warsaw
Building Industry:	Gulden	R. Mks.	Francs	Zloty	s. d.	Pesetas	Kroner	Dollars	Francs	Dollars	Koruny	Lats	Lire	Kronor	s. d.	E. Mks.	Schillings	Zloty
Bricklayers or masons	38.40	60.48	174.00	48.00	85 0	66.00	82.04	48.00	237.60	72.00	250.00	40.44	192.00	76.80	118 0	2,268	68.16	51.84
Carpenters	38.40	60.96	182.40	48.00	85 0	76.00	79.20	36.00	237.80	54.00	252.50	31.44	192.00	76.80	132 0	2,118	72.96	50.40
Joiners	38.40	—	189.60	—	85 0	90.00	79.20	36.00	237.60	54.00	—	32.40	172.80	76.80	—	2,178	55.68	—
Plumbers	38.40	64.80	166.80	—	85 0	75.00	67.20	40.80	237.60	55.20	—	34.68	168.00	66.24	122 0	—	55.10	—
Painters (general)	36.00	60.00	157.20	—	81 0	78.00	83.04	31.20	237.60	48.00	260.00	35.40	252.00	81.60	118 0	—	76.80	51.36
Labourers (general)	31.20	46.08	126.48	24.00	65 0	42.00	75.36	19.20	180.00	40.80	175.00	22.26	144.00	69.60	108 0	1,530	52.80	31 68
Engineering Trades:																		
Fitters	32.16	—	172.80	36.96	62 2	72.00	60.00	28.80	223.20	48.00	245.00	32.16	172.80	—	112 6	—	—	40.80
Ironmoulders (hand)	32.16	—	178.56	36.96	62 2	72.00	60.00	28.32	232.80	46.50	290.00	31.50	172.80	—	111 6	2,070	—	40.80
Patternmakers	32.16	—	234.24	36.96	66 10	90 00	60.00	33.60	288.00	48.00	317.50	31.08	—	—	121 6	—	—	40.80
Turners	32.16	—	183.36	36.96	62 2	78.00	60.00	28.80	237.60	38.40	245.00	26.70	165.60	—	112 6	2,130	53.30	40.80
Labourers	25.68	31.20	131.04	23.04	43 3	42.00	52.80	19.20	153.60	31.20	155.00	18.78	120.00	—	93 0	1,170	35.52	26.40
Furniture Trades:																		
Cabinet-makers	32.64	47.38	194.40	—	84 0	72.00	62.40	27.60	288.00	—	290.00	34.80	240.00	57.60	102 0	1,710	52.80	—
Labourers	—	39.56	—	—	—	42.00	—	16.80	216.00	—	150.00	18.48	120.60	51.84	—	1,644	35.04	—
Printing and Bookbinding Trades:																		
Hand compositors (book and job)	35.04	48.00	254.00	114.24	89 0	73.50	74.96	36.73	—	43.20	—	48 42	203.50	60.55	120 0	2,640	60.50	76.96
Machine " "	30.36	57.60	266.00	159.84	96 0	81.00	89.61	36.73	—	45.17	285.00	67.92	257.00	66.40	133 0[5]	3,498	72.60	109.57
Machine minders	35.04	48.00	254.00	114.24	89 0	88.50	74.95	36.73	—	42.00	—	54.12	203.50	60.55	120 0	2,676	60.50	75.65
Bookbinders	35.04	44.16	266.00	100.32	80 0	70.50	—	35.48	—	41.00	212.50	48.00	190.00	55.20	95 0	2,124	49.25	75.65
Labourers	28.08	42.00	—	57.12	71 0[1]	48.00	—	—	—	—	187.50	27.30	165.00	49.60	—	1,800	42.00	26.09

[1] Warehouse porters. [2] Figures for 1 October 1925. [3] For certain occupations the figures are minimum rates fixed by collective agreements and skilled workers are frequently paid at higher rates. [4] Figures for 31 December 1925. [5] Rates for linotype operators. [6] Figures for 1 October 1926.

TABLE II. AVERAGE RETAIL PRICES[1] OF CERTAIN ARTICLES OF FOOD AT 1 NOVEMBER 1926

Commodity	Amsterdam	Berlin	Brussels[2]	Lodz	London	Madrid	Oslo	Ottawa	Paris	Philadelphia[4]	Prague	Riga	Rome	Stockholm	Sydney[5]	Tallinn	Vienna	Warsaw
	Gulden	R.Mks.	Francs	Zloty	Pence	Pesetas	Kroner	Cents	Francs	Cents	Koruny	Lats	Lire	Kronor	Pence	E. Mks.	Schillinge	Zloty
Bread																		
White	0.24	0.72	2.80	0.60	5.4	0.65	0.86	16.0	2.75	20.9	3.16	0.72	2.75	0.78	6.5	48.8	1.65	0.61
Black or rye	0.18[3]	0.40	2.75	—	—	—	0.45	—	—	—	2.81	0.31	—	0.64	—	18.3	0.59	—
Flour (wheaten)	0.28	0.54	3.90	0.85	6.2	1.00	0.50	13.0	4.00	12.8	4.37	0.78	3.00	0.46	5.4	40.3	0.80	0.95
Butter																		
Fresh	2.18	3.00	26.78	5.87	47.8	5.00	4.14	90.4	27.15	124.1	25.66	3.97	24.00	—	52.2	262.5	6.40	6.46
Salt	—	—	25 20	—	47.4	4.25	—	—	—	—	—	3.56	11.50	3.34	—	232.0	—	—
Margarine	1.20	1.86	11.52	—	17.6	—	1.80	—	11.70	67.7	15.25	2.30	16.00	1.60	—	—	2.80	—
Beef (home produce)																		
Ribs	1.40	2.20	18.40	2.33	41.9	5.60	2.95	45.6	21.15	80.7	16.06	1.13	12.00	2.20	15.4	113.1	3.20	2.55
Thin flank	1.10		9.65		18.3	4.30	2.24	25.1	9.75	58.7	13.72		11.00	1.72	13.6	69.1		
Beef (chilled or frozen)																		
Ribs	1.10	1.40	14.10	—	24.3	3.40	—	—	19.50	—	—	—	11.00	—	—	—	2.60	—
Thin flank	0.80		6.50	—	11.0	1.60	—	—	8.40	—	—	—	4.00	—	—	—		—
Mutton (home produce)																		
Leg	2.20	2.50	14.38	2.26	41.0	3.88	2.33	62.2	20 00	89.7	12.57	1.07	—	2.13	17.1	91.6	3.00	2.48
Breast	1.20	2.10	8.75		19.6	2.20	2.05	—	7.75	—			—	—	13.6	83.8		
Mutton (frozen)																		
Leg	—	—	11.00	—	27.1	—	2.03	—	15.00	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Breast	—	—	3.75	—	11.5	—		—	5.80	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Bacon	1.20	3.10	17.97	3.90	41.7	3.50	—	95.5	18.85	103.8	—	2.02	10.00	2.59	41.5	152.6	2.80	4.00
Potatoes	0.07	0.12	0.85	0.14	2.7	0.25	0.13	6.4	1.60	9.9	1.41	0.11	0.85	0.13	5.7	4.9	0.26	0.17
Sugar (white granulated)	0.49	0.68	3.77	1.30	7.5	1.00	0.79	15.3	5.15	14.6	5.73	0.65	7.30	0.59	10.2	42.7	0.96	1.40
Coffee	1.65	6.80	25.90	11.00	—	8.00	4.04	137.1	31.60	101.7	45.06	9.00	35.00	3.90	58.3	390.7	10.40	11.24
Coffee substitute	—	0.50	—	2.60	—	3.00	—	—	7.53	—	4.36	0.70	0.85	1.60	—	97.7	1.50	2.60
Tea	3.10	9.60	33.33	23.50	48.5	18.00	—	156.8	51.00	159.2	—	12.00	58.00	—	59.8	586.1	16.00	28.80
Cheese	1.20	1.50	—	1.48	28.0	5.50	0.95	71.7	18.00	86.4	6.29	1.25	17.50	1.76	36.6	195.4	5.40	1.88
Milk (unskimmed)	0.17	0.32	1.70	0.40	6.2	0.80	0.35	9.7	1.50	12.7	2.15	0.26	1.80	0.24	7.6	15.9	0.52	0.46
Eggs (not newlaid or preserved)	0.12	0.15	1.56	0.24	2.7	0.25	0.21	5·3	1.20	4.5	1.08	0.14	0.90	0.17	2.9	7.7	0.21	0.22
Rice	0.25	0.66	5.72	1.25	6.4	1.10	0.95	24.5	6.70	27.3	4.45	0.83	3.30	0.52	7.3	48.8	1.00	1.31

[1] Prices are per kilogramme, except for milk (per litre) and eggs (per unit).
[2] Bread made with unsifted wheaten flour.
[3] Figures for 15 November 1926.
[4] Figures for 15 September 1926.
[5] Figures for 15 June 1926.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

Recent Labour Legislation

The list of laws and orders and international conventions given below continues the list published in previous numbers of the *Review*. The titles are, as a rule, given in the original language, with abbreviated translations of all those other than English, French, and German. A brief statement of the subject is added where the title itself does not indicate it. Abbreviated titles of sources have been used[1]. Those entries in the list marked with an asterisk (*) will be reproduced in full in English, French, and German in the *Legislative Series* of the International Labour Office.

LEGISLATION OF 1925

AUSTRALIA

Commonwealth

Regulations under Navigation Act, 1912-1920, to amend Navigation (Grain) Coal, and Ballast) Regulations, 1923 (C.S.R. 1923, No. 135, p. 611). Dated 10 June 1925. (C.S.R., 1925, No. 97, p. 419.)

Australian Soldiers Repatriation Regulations, under the Australian Soldiers Repatriation Act, 1920-1922. Dated 2 July 1925. (C.S.R., 1925, No. 110, p. 323.,

Regulation under the Australian Soldiers Repatriation Act, 1920-1922: Amendment of Regulation 191 (grants for funeral expenses). Dated 13 August 1925. (C.S.R., 1925, No. 137, p. 400.)

Regulation under Australian Soldiers Repatriation Act, 1920-1922: New Regulation 89P (allowance to soldiers suffering loss of vision of one eye). Dated 30 September 1925. (C.S.R., 1925, No. 174, p. 400.)

Regulation under the Australian Soldiers Repatriation Act, 1920-1922. Amends Regulation 191 by adding subsection (3) fixing 1 July 1925 as date of commencement of Regulation. Dated 28 October 1925. (C.S.R., 1925, No. 180, p. 400.)

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[1] *List of abbreviations:* A. N. = Amtliche Nachrichten des Oesterreichischen Bundesministeriums für soziale Verwaltung; B. G. Bl. = Bundesgesetzblatt; B. I. R. S. = Boletin del Instituto de Reformas Sociales; B. M. T. = Bulletin du Ministère du Travail; B. O. M. T. = Boletin Oficial del Ministerio de Trabajo, Comercio e Industria; C. S. R. = Commonwealth Statutory Rules; D. R. A. = Deutscher Reichsanzeiger; Drj. Vest. = Drjaven Vestnik; E. K. N. = Ergatiké kai Koinoniké Nomothesia (pararténa B') (published by the Ministry of National Economy); Eph. Kyb. = Ephémeris tès Kybernéséos (Teuchos proton); G. U. = Gazzetta Ufficiale; I. N. K. T. = Izvestia Narodnogo Komissariata Trooda; J. O. = Journal Officiel; Lik. = Likumu un Minustru Kabineta Noteikumu Krajums; R. Arb. Bl. = Reichsarbeitsblatt; R. d. T. = Revue du Travail; R. G. Bl. = Reichsgesetzblatt; S. R. & O. = Statutory Rules and Orders; Sb. z. a n. = Sbirka zâkonu a narizeni (Collection of Laws and Orders of the Czechoslovak Republic); L. S. = Legislative Series of the International Labour Office.

Regulations under Navigation Act, 1912-1925, to amend Navigation (Grain, Coal, and Ballast) Regulations, 1923 (C.S.R., 1923, No. 135, p. 611). Dated 28 October 1925. (C.S.R., 1925, No. 182, p. 421.)

Regulation under the Australian Soldiers Repatriation Act, 1920-1922. Amends Regulations 89C-89F and 89O by adding proviso that allowances granted under these regulations shall not be reduced in consequence of the increase in old-age or invalid pensions under the Invalid and Old-Age Pension Act, 1925. Dated 25 November 1925. (C. S. R., 1925, No. 204, p. 401.)

Northern Territory

An Ordinance to amend the Early Closing Ordinance, 1912-1921 No. 1 of 1925. Dated 14 January 1925. (Commonwealth of Australia Gazette, 1925, No. 2, p. 22.)

An Ordinance to amend the Aboriginals Ordinance, 1918-1924. No. 14 of 1925. Dated 23 July 1925. (Commonwealth of Australia Gazette, 1925, No. 60, p. 1172.)

BOLIVIA

Ordenanza sobre andamios. 6 de junio de 1925. (Accidentes del Trabajo, 1926.)

[Order respecting scaffolding. Dated 6 June 1925.]

Supremo Decreto Reglamentario de 3 de julio de 1925. (Accidentes del Trabajo, 1926.)

[Supreme Administrative Decree (miners' accidents). Dated 3 July 1925.]

LUXEMBURG

Arrêté grand-ducal du 30 juillet 1925 approuvant le règlement sur les pensions des agents des chemins de fer Guillaume-Luxembourg non soumis à l'assurance-invalidité et vieillesse et non affiliés à une caisse d'assurance et de retraite. (Mémorial, 1925, No. 37, p. 465.)

LEGISLATION OF 1926

CONTROLLED TERRITORIES OF LEAGUE OF NATIONS

Saar Territory

Verordnung betr. die Erwerbslosenfürsorge im Saargebiet. Vom 25. Oktober 1926. (Amtsblatt der Regierungskommission des Saargebietes, 1926, No. 42, p. 304.)

ARGENTINA

Decreto de 13 de agosto de 1926 reglamentando el Articulo 32 de la Ley No. 4349 [de 19 de octubre de 1904]. (Boletin Oficial, 1926, No. 9706, p. 577.)

[Decree respecting the administration of section 32 of Act No. 4349 (of 19 October 1904) (civil servants' pensions). Dated 13 August 1926.]

AUSTRALIA

Queensland

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New South Wales

Regulation under the Workers' Compensation Act, 1926. Dated 27 August 1926. (New South Wales Industrial Gazette, 1926, Vol. XXX, No. 2, p. 211.)

Territory of Papua

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1917-1924 : Native Taxes (Funds) Regulations, 1926. Dated 20 September 1926. (Government Gazette, 1926, Vol. XXI., No. 17, p. 159.)

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AUSTRIA

Bundesgesetz vom 28. Oktober 1926 betreffend die Notarversicherung. (B. G. Bl., 1926, 70. Stück, No. 317, p. 1272.)

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Verordnung des Bundesministers für soziale Verwaltung vom 28. Oktober 1926 betreffend die Erhöhung der Beiträge beim Pensionsinstitut der österreichischen Journalisten. (B.G.Bl., 1926, 69. Stück, No. 312, p. 1270.)

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Kundmachung des Bundeskanzleramtes vom 8. November 1926 über das Inkrafttreten des zwischen Oesterreich, Italien, Polen, Rumänien, dem Königreiche der Serben, Kroaten und Slovenen und der Tschechoslowakei am 6. April 1922 abgeschlossenen Uebereinkommens betreffend die von der ehemaligen österreichischen Regierung zuerkannten Pensionen für die Tschechoslowakei. Den 11. September 1926. (B.G.Bl., 1926, 73. Stück, No. 321, p. 1321.)

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BELGIUM

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CZECHOSLOVAKIA

Zakon ze dne 1. cervence 1926 o prevzeti a priznani odpocivnych a zaopatrovacich pozitku v souvislosti s pensijnimi umluvami sjednanymi v Rime dne 6. dubna 1922 a ve Vidni dne 30. listopadu 1923. (S. z. a n., 1926, Castka 73, No. 159, p. 668.)

[Act respecting the transfer and allocation of pensions and superannuation allowances in pursuance of the Pension Agreements concluded in Rome on 6 April 1922 and in Vienna on 30 November 1923. Dated 1 July 1926.]

Vladni narizeni ze dne 16. cervence 1926, kterym se provadeji nektera ustanoveni zakona ze dne 15. rijna 1925, c. 221 Sb. z. a n., o nemocenském pojisteni verejnych zamestnancu. (Sb. z. a n., 1926, Castka 65, No. 145, p. 602.)

[Government Order for the administration of certain provisions of the Act of 15 October 1925, Sb. z. a n., No. 221, respecting the sickness insurance of public employees. Dated 16 July 1926.]

DENMARK

Socialministeriets Bekendtgörelse af 28. September 1926 om, hvilke Fag og Brancher af Fag der er berettigede til ekstraordinaer Arbejdslöshedsunderstöttelse i Henhold til § 31 i Lov af 4. Marts 1924 om Arbejdsanvisning og Arbejdslöshedsforsikring m.v. (Socialt Tidsskrift, 1926, No. 9, p. B77.)

[Notification of the Ministry of Social Affairs specifying the trades entitled to exceptional unemployment benefit in pursuance of section 31 of the Act of 4 March 1924 respecting unemployment exchanges and unemployment insurance. Dated 28 September 1926.]

Kgl. Anordning af 7. Oktober 1926 (udstedt gennem Socialministeriet) angaaende Ophaevelse af den ved kongelig Anordning af 22. Marts 1918 oprettede Stats-Ulykkesforsikring og de paagaeldende Sagers Henlaeggelse under Arbejderforsikrings-Raadets Administration. (Socialt Tidsskrift, 1926, No. 10, p. B82.)

[Royal Order (issued by the Ministry of Social Affairs) to abolish the state accident insurance instituted by the Royal Order of 22 March 1918 and to make the Workers' Insurance Council responsible for dealing with matters connected therewith. Dated 7 October 1926.]

DUTCH EAST INDIES

Heerendiensten. Tapanoeli. Nieuwe regeling van de heerendiensten in genoemd gewest. Besluit van den Gouverneur-Generaal van 14 September 1926, No. 35. (Staatsblad van Nederlandsch-Indië, 1926, No. 408.)

[Decree of the Governor General issuing new regulations for compulsory labour in the province of Tapanoeli. Dated 14 September 1926.]

ECUADOR

* Decreto de 13 de julio de 1926 : Créase la Inspección General del Trabajo dependiente del Ministerio de Previsión Social y Trabajo. (Registro Oficial, 1926, No. 83, p. 759.)

[Decree to institute the General Labour Inspectorate attached to the Ministry of Social Welfare and Labour. Dated 13 July 1926.]

Decreto de 13 de julio de 1926 aprobando el reglamento para el equipo de naves y disposiciones complementarias. (Registro Oficial, 1926, No. 93, p. 849.)

[Decree to approve the regulations respecting the fitting out of ships and other matters connected therewith. Dated 13 July 1926.]

Decreto No. 25 de 15 de julio de 1926 : Créase, con carácter oficial, la Junta Consultiva del Trabajo, adscrita al Ministerio de Previsión Social. (Registro Oficial, 1926, No. 91, p. 835.)

[Decree No. 25 to institute an official "Advisory Labour Council" attached to the Ministry of Social Welfare. Dated 15 July 1926.]

* Reglamento de 23 de julio de 1926 sobre la Inspección General del Trabajo. (Registro Oficial, 1926, No. 99, p. 897.)

[Regulations respecting the General Labour Inspectorate. Dated 23 July 1926.]

ESTHONIA

Maareformi teostamise määruste §§ 94-109 ja 118 muutmise ja täiendamise määrus. 22. septembril 1926 a. (Riigi Teataja, 1926, No. 71, p. 870.)

[Order to amend and supplement sections 94-109 and 118 of the Orders for the administration of the agrarian reform. Dated 22 September 1926.]

* Töö- hoolekandeministri määrus puhke ja tasu wõimaldamise korra kohta isikutele, kes seotud töödega, mille täitmine lubatud pühapäewadel ja pühadel tööstusettewõtete nädala puhkepäewade seaduse § 4 põhjal. 23. oktoobril 1926 a. (Riigi Teataja, 126 a, No. 78, p. 906.)

[Order of the Minister of Labour and Social Welfare respecting the grant of a rest period and compensation to persons employed on work the performance of which on Sundays and holidays is permitted in conformity with section 4 of the Act respecting weekly rest in industrial undertakings. Dated 23 October 1926.]

FRANCE

Loi modifiant l'article 20 de la loi du 14 juillet 1905 relative à l'assistance obligatoire aux vieillards, aux infirmes et aux incurables privés de ressources. Du 21 novembre 1926. (J. O., 1926, No. 272, p. 12402.)

Décret du 6 juillet 1926 relatif aux taux d'intérêt applicable, en 1927, au calcul des tarifs d'après lesquels sera fixé le montant de rentes viagères d'assurés des retraites ouvrières et paysannes. (J. O., 1926, No. 277, p. 12539.)

* Décret du 9 novembre 1926 portant règlement d'administration publique pour l'exécution de l'article 3 de la loi du 30 avril 1926 modifiant, complétant et interprétant la loi du 15 décembre 1922 étendant aux exploitations agricoles la législation sur les accidents du travail. (J. O., 1926, No. 265, p. 12136.)

Décret du 10 novembre 1926 portant règlement d'administration publique pour l'établissement d'un régime uniforme de répartition du travail dans les magasins et salons de coiffure des villes de Roubaix, Wattrelos, Croix et Mouvaux. (J. O., 1926, No. 265, p. 12138.)

Décret du 10 novembre 1926 portant règlement d'administration publique pour l'établissement d'un régime uniforme de répartition du travail dans les pharmacies vendant au détail de la ville de Nevers. (J. O., 1926, No. 265, p. 12138.)

Décrets du 19 novembre 1926 portant règlement d'administration publique pour l'établissement d'un régime uniforme de répartition des heures de présence dans des magasins et salons de coiffure. (Versailles-La Seyne.) (J. O., 1926. No. 271, p. 12373.)

Décret du 20 novembre 1926 élevant le taux de la compétence en dernier ressort des conseils de prud'hommes. (J. O., 1926, No. 273, p. 12434.)

Décret du 26 novembre 1926 portant règlement d'administration publique pour l'application de la loi du 23 avril 1919 sur la journée de huit heures dans les pâtisseries des départements de Seine et Seine-et-Oise. (J. O., 1926, No. 278, p. 12582; Errata: No. 280, p. 12667.)

GERMANY

Verordnung zur Abänderung der Vierten Ausführungsverordnung zur Verordnung über Erwerbslosenfürsorge vom 4. Juli 1924 (R. G. Bl., I, S. 663). Vom 27. Oktober 1926. (R. G. Bl., I, 1926, No. 59, p. 481.)

Hamburg

Bekanntmachung betreffend die Sonntagsruhe im Buchmachergewerbe. Vom 13. Oktober 1926. (Hamburger Gesetz- und Verordnungsblatt, No. 113, p. 659.)

GREAT BRITAIN

An Act to amend the Trade Facilities Acts, 1921 to 1925, by increasing the maximum limit of the loans in respect of which guarantees may be given under

those Acts and by extending the period within which such guarantees may be given, and to extend the periods during which guarantees may respectively be given and remain in force under the Overseas Trade Acts, 1920 to 1924. (16 Geo. V, ch. 3.) Dated 26 March 1926.

* An Act to confirm and give effect to an agreement made between the Treasury and the Ministry of Finance for Northern Ireland with a view to assimilating the burdens on the Exchequers of the United Kingdom and Northern Ireland with respect to unemployment insurance. (16 Geo. V, ch. 4.) Dated 26 March 1926.

* An Act to make provision for reducing in respect of certain services the charges on public funds and for increasing, by means of the payment into the Exchequer of Northern Ireland of certain sums and otherwise, the funds available for meeting such charges, and to amend accordingly the law relating to national health insurance, unemployment insurance, petty sessions funds and local government, and for purposes related or incidental to the matters aforesaid. (16 & 17 Geo. V, ch. 11.) Dated 1 June 1926.

* An Act to make provision for reducing in respect of certain services the charges on public funds and for increasing, by means of the payment into the Exchequer of certain sums and otherwise, the funds available for meeting such charges, and to amend accordingly the law relating to national health insurance, unemployment insurance, the registration of electors and the holding of elections, education, bankruptcy and companies' winding-up fees and certain other fees, and postmarks, and for purposes related or incidental to the matters aforesaid. (16 & 17 Geo. V, ch. 9.) Dated 16 June 1926.

* The Herring Curing (Scotland) Welfare Order, 1926. Dated 12 May 1926. (Factory and Workshop Orders, 1926, p. 255.)

The Explosives in Coal Mines Order of 8 November 1926. (S. R. & O., 1926, No. 1392.)

HUNGARY

A m. kir. kerskedelemügyi miniszternek 1926. évi 88.586. szamu rendelete a Györ szab. kir. varos területen levö textil-, nöi és férfi divataruk, cipö-, rövid-, kötött- és szövöttaruk forgalombahozatalara berendezett nyiltarusitasi üzletek zaroanak szabalyozasa targyaban. 1926. évi oktober ho 1-én. (Budapesti Közlöny, 1926, 228. szam, 1. lap.)

[Order of the Minister of Commerce No. 88586 of 1926 respecting the fixing of the closing hour of places in the town of Györ for the sale to the public of textile goods for men and women and of shoes, haberdashery, knitted goods, and woven goods. Dated 1 October 1926.]

ITALY

Regio Decreto-Legge, 16 agosto 1926, n. 1714 : Disposizioni varie in materia di edilizia popolare. (Numero di pubblicazione : 2021.) (G.U., 1926, No. 240, p. 4561.)

[Legislative Decree No. 1714 : Miscellaneous provisions respecting cheap dwellings. Dated 16 August 1926.]

Decreto ministeriale 27 ottobre 1926 : Approvazione di nuove tariffe adottate dall'Istituto nazionale delle assicurazioni. (G.U., 1926, No. 253, p. 4792.)

[Ministerial Order to approve new scales adopted by the National Insurance Institute. Dated 27 October 1926.]

Regio Decreto 15 agosto 1926, n. 1733 : Approvazione dell' ordinamento del personale dell' Amministrazione delle poste e dei telegrafi. (Numero di pubblicazione : 2029.) (G. U., 1926, No. 242, p. 4582.)

[Royal Decree No. 1733 to approve the staff rules for the Postal and Telegraph Department. Dated 15 August 1926.]

Regio decreto 16 settembre 1926, n. 1699 : Sede e circoscrizione delle Commissioni arbitrali compartimentali per gli infortuni sul lavoro in agricoltura. (Numero di pubblicazione : 2016.) (G. U., 1926, No. 239, p. 4548.)

[Royal Decree No. 1699 : Headquarters and districts of the local arbitration boards for accidents to agricultural workers. Dated 16 September 1926.]

Regio Decreto 23 settembre 1926, n. 1732 : Approvazione dello statuto dell' Associazione nazionale per la prevenzione degli infortuni sul lavoro. (Numero di pubblicazione : 2063.) (G. U., 1926, No. 245, p. 4646.)

[Royal Decree No. 1732 to approve the rules of the National Association for the Prevention of Industrial Accidents. Dated 23 September 1926.]

Regio Decreto 26 settembre 1926, n. 1718 : Riconoscimento giuridico della Confederazione nazionale dei Sindacati fascisti. (G. U., 1926, No. 243, p. 4598.)

[Royal Decree No. 1718 : Legal recognition of the National Confederation of Fascist Trade Unions. Dated 26 September 1926.]

Regio Decreto 26 settembre 1926, n. 1720 : Riconoscimento giuridico della Confederazione generale fascista dell' industria italiana. (G. U., 1926, No. 243, p. 4619.)

[Royal Decree No. 1720 : Legal recognition of the Fascist General Confederation of Italian Industries. Dated 26 September 1926.]

Regio Decreto 30 settembre 1926, n. 1801 : Fissazione a carico dei vettori e dei capitani dei piroscafi muniti di licenza consolare di una tassa per i viaggi di ritorno degli emigranti dai porti transoceanici ad un porto del Regno. (Numero di pubblicazione : 2114.) (G. U., 1926, No. 253, p. 4790.)

[Royal Decree No. 1801 fixing a fee payable by emigration carriers and captains of vessels with a consular licence for the return voyage of emigrants from oversea ports to a port in the Kingdom. Dated 30 September 1926.]

Regio Decreto 7 ottobre 1926, n. 1797 : Approvazione del nuovo statuto dell' Istituto per le case popolari in Roma. (Numero di pubblicazione : 2110.) (G. U., 1926, No. 251, p. 4740.)

[Royal Decree No. 1797 : Approval of the new rules for the Working-Class Housing Institute in Rome. Dated 7 October 1926.]

Regio Decreto 7 ottobre 1926, n. 1803 : Riconoscimento giuridico della Confederazione nazionale fascista dei commercianti. (Numero di pubblicazione : 2133.) (G. U., 1926, No. 257, p. 4842.)

[Royal Decree No. 1803 : Legal recognition of the National Fascist Confederation of Persons engaged in Commerce. Dated 7 October 1926.]

Regio Decreto 7 ottobre 1926, n. 1804: Riconoscimento giuridico della Confederazione nazionale fascista degli agricoltori. (Numero di pubblicazione : 2134.) (G. U., 1926, No. 257, p. 4850.)

[Royal Decree No. 1804 : Legal recognition of the National Fascist Confederation of Agriculturists. Dated 7 October 1926.]

* Regio Decreto 6 novembre 1926, n. 1848 : Approvazione del testo unico delle leggi di pubblica sicurezza. Numero di pubblicazione : 2132. (G. U., 1926, No. 257, p. 4822.)

[Royal Decree No. 1848 : Approval of the codified text of the public safety laws. Dated 6 November 1926.]

LATVIA

Pargrozijums agraras reformas likuma 1 d. 3. p. d punkta papildinajumos un pargrozijumos. 1926. g. 1. novembri. (Valdibas Vestnesis, 1926, No. 246, p. 1.)

[Amendment of the amendments of and supplements to Part I, section 3 (*d*), of the Agrarian Reform Act. Dated 1 November 1926.]

LITHUANIA

Valstybes tarnautoju pensiju ir pasalpu istatymui vykdyti taisykles. (Vyriausybés Zinios, 1926, No. 235. p. 1.)

[Provisions for the administration of the Act respecting pensions and allowances for state employees. (No date.)]

Zemes reformos istatymui vykdyti instrukcijos pakeitimas. (Vyriausybés Zinios, 1926, No. 235. p. 6.)

[Amendment of the administrative instructions under the Agrarian Reform Act. (No date.)]

Zemes reformos istatymui vykdyti instrukcijos pakeitimas. (Vyriausybés Zinios, 1926, No. 238, p. 1.)

[Amendment of the administrative instructions under the Agrarian Reform Act. (No date.)]

NETHERLANDS

Besluit van den 7den October 1926, tot wijziging en aanvulling van het Koninklijk besluit van den 11den Juli 1922 (Staatsblad, No. 444) tot vaststelling van een algemeenen maatregel van bestuur, bedoeld in artikel 181 der Pensioenswet 1922 (Staatsblad, No. 240). (Staatsblad, 1926, No. 351.)

[Decree to amend and supplement the Royal Decree of 11 July 1922 (Staatsblad, No. 444) issuing public administrative regulations in pursuance of section 181 of the Pension Act, 1922 (Staatsblad, No. 240). Dated 7 October 1926.]

POLAND

Ustawa z dnia 2 sierpnica 1926 r. o zwalczaniu nieuczciwej konkurencji. Ochrona cywilno-prawna praw przedsiebiorcy. (Dziennik Ustaw, 1926, No. 96, poz. 559, p. 1059.)

[Act to prevent unfair competition. Dated 2 August 1926.]

Rozporzadzenie Prezydenta Rzeczypospolitej z dnia 3 wrzesnia 1926 r. o zaopatrzeniu emerytalnem nieetatowych pracownikow Polskich Kolei Panstwowych i o zaopatrzeniu pozostalych po nich wdow i sierot, oraz o odszkodowaniu za nieszczesliwe wypadki. (Dziennik Ustaw, 1926, No. 94, poz. 551, p. 1045.)

[Order of the President of the Republic respecting the pensions of state railway employees who are not entered on the permanent staff lists, and of the widows and orphans of such employees, and respecting compensation for industrial accidents. Dated 3 September 1926.]

Rozporzadzenie Prezydenta Rzeczypospolitej z dnia 24 wrzesnia 1926 r. o tworzeniu przedsiebiorstwa " Polskie Kolcje Panstwowe ". (Dziennik Ustaw, 1926, No. 97, poz. 568, p. 1069.)

[Order of the President of the Republic respecting the institution of a " Polish State Railways " undertaking. Dated 24 September 1926.]

ROUMANIA

Lege : [Se ratifica urmatoarele conventiuni incheiate de România ou Austria la Viena in 25 Iulie 1924]. 24 Martie 1926. (Monitorul Oficial, 1926, No. 256, p. 17513.)

[Act to ratify certain treaties between Roumania and Austria concluded at Vienna on 25 July 1924. Dated 24 March 1926.]

SERB-CROAT-SLOVENE KINGDOM

Act to amend and supplement the Housing Act of 15 May 1925. Dated 23 October 1926. (Sluzbene Novine, 1926, No. 244.)

Decree No. 2331/926 of the Minister of Justice, respecting the observance of public holidays in penal institutions, bridewells, reformatories, and detention prisons. Dated 24 January 1926. (Sluzbene Novine, 1926, No. 27.)

SPAIN

* Real decreto-ley estableciendo la Organización Corporativa Nacional. 26 de noviembre de 1926. (Gaceta de Madrid, 1926, No. 331, p. 1098.)

[Royal Legislative Decree establishing a national system of joint industrial associations. Dated 26 November 1926.]

Real decreto aprobando el Reglamento provisional para la aplicación del E tatuto de Enseñanza industrial a las Escuelas de Ingenieros Industriales. 11 de octubre de 1926. (Gaceta de Madrid, 1926, No. 292, p. 339.)

[Royal Decree to approve the provisional regulations for the application of

the regulations for industrial instruction to the schools for industrial engineers. Dated 11 October 1926.]

Real orden de 18 de octubre de 1926 disponiendo quede derogado y sin efecto el numero 3º de la Real orden de 15 de novembre de 1921, y disponiendo que la intervención de las Autoridades gubernativas y sus Agentes en las cuestiones de emigración se realice tan solo en los términos y condiciones prescritas en el artículo 15 de la vigente ley de Emigración. (Gaceta de Madrid, 1926, No. 293, p. 383.)

[Royal Order to repeal No. 3 of the Royal Order of 15 November 1921 and to provide that the government authorities and their representatives shall not intervene in emigration questions except under the conditions prescribed in section 15 of the Emigration Act now in operation. Dated 18 October 1926.]

Real decreto aprobando con fuerza de ley el Estatuto, que se inserta, de las Clases pasivas del Estado. 22 de octubre de 1926. (Gaceta de Madrid, 1926, No. 301, p. 546.)

[Royal Decree to ratify the Regulations for the non-productive classes of the State (pensions for public officials and their widows and orphans). Dated 22 October 1926.]

Real decreto aprobando el Reglamento, que se inserta, para el régimen interior de los servicios de la Junta de Patronato de Ingenieros y obreros pensionados en el extranjero. 22 de octubre de 1926. (Gaceta de Madrid, 1926, No. 307, p. 691.)

[Royal Decree to approve the regulations appended thereto for the working of the Welfare Committee for engineers and workers holding scholarships abroad. Dated 22 October 1926.]

SPANISH GUINEA

Decreto creando una Escuela de Artes y Oficios [en donde los indigenas puedan adquirir una profesion]. 25 de agosto de 1926. (Boletín Oficial de los Territorios Españoles del Golfo de Guinea, año XX, No. XVII, p. 130.)

[Decree to establish a School of Arts and Crafts (where natives may receive vocational instruction). Dated 25 August 1926.]

SWEDEN

Kungl. maj:ts kungörelse angaende ändrad lydelse av övergangsstadgandena till kap. V i reglementet den 31 december 1919 (nr. 878) för statens pensionsanstalt. Den 23 september 1926. (Svensk Författningssamling, 1926, No. 440, p. 948.)

[Royal Notification to amend the transitional provisions of chapter V of the Regulations of 31 December 1919 (No. 878) respecting the State Pension Institution. Dated 23 September 1926.]

UNION OF SOUTH AFRICA

Proclamation No. 260, 1926 : Proclamation of Urban Area of Senekal under section twelve of the Natives (Urban Areas) Act, 1923. Dated 6 October 1926. (Union of South Africa Government Gazette, 1926, Vol. LXVI, No. 1586, p. 176.)

Government Notice No. 1888 issued by the Department of Native Affairs under the provisions of subsection (1) of section twenty-three of the Natives (Urban Areas) Act, 1923, to amend the regulations in force in the proclaimed areas defined in Proclamation No. 202 of 1924, which were published under Government Notice No. 1547 of 1924, by the addition to section nine of the following words : " For the purposes of this regulation, ' wages ' shall include any amount due to such native in lieu of notice of termination of the said contract upon the wrongful dismissal of such native by his employer. " Dated 16 October 1926. (Union of South Africa Government Gazette, 1926, Vol. LXVI, No. 1586, p. 177.)

Government Notice No. 1894 issued by the Department of Native Affairs under the provisions of subsection (1) of section twenty-three of the Natives (Urban Areas) Act, 1923, to amend the regulations in force in the proclaimed areas defined in Proclamation No. 203 of 1924, which were published under Government Notice No. 1546 of 1924, by the addition to section nine of the following words : " For the purposes of this regulation, ' wage ' shall include any amount

due to such native in lieu of notice of termination of the said contract upon the wrongful dismissal of such native by his employer." Dated 16 October 1926. (Union of South Africa Government Gazette, 1926, Vol. LXVI, No. 1586, p. 177).

Government Notice No. 1909 under section nine of the Industrial Conciliation Act, No. 11 of 1924 [publishing an Agreement for the building industry and notifying that from 29 October 1926, and for the period ending 12 February 1928, the terms of the said Agreement, with the exception of rule 22, shall be binding upon all employers and employees in the building industry in the areas defined in rule 1 of the Agreement]. Dated 19 October 1926. (Union of South Africa Government Gazette, 1926, Vol. LXVI, No. 1586, p. 194.)

Government Notice No. 1915 issued by the Department of Native Affairs: Regulations framed under section twenty-three (1) of the Natives (Urban Areas) Act for the proclaimed area of Senekal. Dated 19 October 1926. (Union of South Africa Government Gazette, 1926, Vol. LXVI, No. 1586, p. 178; Erratum, No. 1589, p. 372.)

Government Notice No. 1942 under section nine of the Industrial Conciliation Act, No. 11 of 1924, notifying that from 5 November 1926 and for the period ending 31 December 1927 the terms of the Agreement relating to the printing industry published as a schedule to this Notice with the exception of clause 36 shall be binding upon all employees in the printing industry in the Union of South Africa. Assented to 26 October 1926. (Union of South Africa Government Gazette, Vol. LXVI, No. 1587, p. 257.)

URUGUAY

Decreto: Se conviene la forma de justificar y apreciar los servicios de personal incluido en la Caja de Jubilaciones y Pensiones de Empleados y Obreros de Servicios Publicos. 27 de setiembre de 1926. (Diario Oficial, 1926, No. 6113, p. 19.)

[Decree to lay down rules for the proof and evaluation of the service of employees belonging to the Superannuation and Pension Fund for public wage-earning and salaried employees. Dated 27 September 1926.]

Decreto: Se reglamenta la forma de eleccción y funcionamiento del Consejo de la Caja de Jubilaciones y Pensiones de Empleados de Instituciones Bancarias y Bolsa de Comercio. 27 de setiembre de 1926. (Diario Oficial, 1926, No. 6111, p. 2-A.)

[Decree to lay down rules for the election and procedure of the governing body of the superannuation and pension fund for employees of banks and the Stock Exchange. Dated 27 September 1926.]

Montevideo

Ordenanza sobre instalación de motores, hornos, etc. en los establecimientos industriales: Reglamentación de los artículos 28 y 29 de la ley de 8 de julio de 1885. 22 de setiembre de 1926. (Diario Oficial, 1926, No. 6110, p. 696.)

[Order respecting the installation of engines, furnaces, etc. in industrial establishments: issued under sections 28 and 29 of the Act of 8 July 1885. Dated 22 September 1926.]

Book Notes

INTERNATIONAL PUBLICATIONS

Permanent Court of International Justice. *Application instituting Proceedings concerning the denunciation of the Treaty of 2 November 1865, between China and Belgium, and addressed to the Registrar of the Court, in conformity with Article 40 of the Statutes, through the intermediary of the Belgian Legation at the Hague, 25 November 1926.* Leyden, A. W. Sijthoff, 1926. 5 pp.

—— *German Interests in Polish Upper Silesia (The Merits).* Vol. I. *Minutes. Speeches. German Memorial.* 601 pp. Vol. II. *Polish Counter-Case. German Reply. Polish Rejoinder.* Pp. 614-994. Publications Series C. Acts and Documents relating to Judgments and Advisory Opinions given by the Court, No. 11. Tenth Session. Documents relating to Judgment No. 7. Leyden, A. W. Sijthoff, 1926.

—— *Statute of the Court. Rules of the Court (as amended 31 July 1926).* Publications Series D, No. 1. Leyden, A.W. Sijthoff, 1926. 82 pp.

Confédération internationale des étudiants. *Annuaire 1926.* Brussels, 1926. 82 pp.

Year book of the International Students' Federation, 1926.

International Institute of Agriculture. *Collection of World Agricultural Legislation for the year 1925.* Rome, 1926. xxxv + 1104 pp.

The International Institute of Agriculture publishes every year the recent laws affecting agriculture in the various countries. The laws mentioned or translated concern every class of activity which calls for the legislator's intervention : agricultural and commercial statistics ; trade in agricultural produce, machinery, fertilisers and live-stock ; financial questions and customs regulations touching agriculture ; plant production and trade in plant products ; animal production and industries in animal products ; agricultural organisation and training ; plant diseases and vegetable and animal pests ; agricultural co-operation, insurance and credit ; rural property and land settlement ; relation between capital and labour in agriculture ; rural hygiene and police (protection of properties).

The collection is a valuable source of information on agricultural legislation and agricultural problems. The year book of 1925 is presented as a special edition for the members of the Preparatory Committee of the International Economic Conference.

World Association for Adult Education. *Educational Settlements in England, Two German Experiments, Women's Institutes, etc.* London, 1926. 32 pp. 1s.

—— *Seventh Annual Report. A Philosophy of Adult Education, The People's Universities in Vienna, etc.* Bulletin XXVIII. London, 1926. 36 pp. 1s.

—— *The Drama in Adult Education, etc.* Bulletin XXIX. London, 1926. 28 pp. 1s.

World's Student Christian Federation. *Directory and Exchange List 1926-1927.* Geneva. 17 pp.

Contains the names and addresses of the Executive Committee and secretaries of the World's Student Christian Federation, data concerning affiliated and corresponding movements, and a general directory of the Federation's officers in the different countries.

—— **International Student Service.** *Annual Report for the college year 1925-1926 submitted to the Karlovici Conference, 25 July–2 August 1926, and to the General Committee Meeting of the World's Student Christian Federation in Nyborg, Denmark, 9-24 August 1926.* Geneva, 1926. 28 pp., tables.

This report deals exhaustively with the past activities, present situation and future plans of the International Student Service, formerly known as the European Student Relief. It contains special chapters on the work-student, overproduction of intellectuals, student self-help, student hostels and the Conference of International Student Organisations. A report of the Commission on the Future of the International Student Service set up by the World's Student Christian Federation is added. Finally, tables giving the budget of the International Student Service, the funds expended for Russian student relief, the sources and amounts of contributions by countries, giving a total of more than 12,000,000 Swiss francs in the past six years, are included.

—— —— *Fifth Annual Conference, Karlovici, Yugoslavia, 24 July-2 August, 1926.* Geneva, 1926. 61 pp.

Contains short résumés of the chief addresses given at the Conference and the full text of resolutions drawn up in the different commissions and voted on by the plenary meeting. They deal with: problems of self-help, responsibility towards foreign students, relations between students of the East and West, refugee students, and the future of the International Student Service. Statistics are given relating to refugee students and graduates in different countries. The appendix contains the agreement between the World's Student Christian Federation and the International Student Service regulating their mutual relations. Finally, a list of names and addresses of delegates and guests to the Conference is included.

—— —— *Student Hostels and Foyers, 1926-1927.* Geneva, 1926. 124 pp.

List of foyers, student hostels, and addresses of secretaries, arranged according to countries, to which are added the addresses of other international student organisations.

OFFICIAL PUBLICATIONS

AUSTRALIA

Report of the High Commissioner of the Commonwealth for the year 1925. Melbourne, 1926. 46 pp. 1s. 6d.

War Service Homes Commission. *Report of the War Service Homes Commission together with Statements and Balance-sheets 1 July 1925 to 30 June 1926.* Melbourne, 1926. 28 pp. 1s. 3d.

NEW SOUTH WALES

Registry of Friendly Societies. *Friendly Societies and Trade Unions. Report of the Acting Registrar for the Twelve Months ended 30 June 1925.* Sydney, 1926. 20 pp. 1s. 6d.

QUEENSLAND

Department of Agriculture and Stock. Agricultural Bank. *Twenty-fourth Annual Report of the Manager for the Year ended 30 June 1926, to which are appended Statements of Accounts, Balance-Sheet, Statistics, and other Information.* Brisbane, 1926. 38 pp. 1s. 3d.

The report deals with all operations of the Agricultural Bank of Queensland, including loans to discharged soldier settlers and to co-operative associations. One of the appendices reviews briefly the history of agricultural loans legislation in Queensland.

Department of Public Works. State Advances Corporation (Workers' Dwellings). *Seventeenth Annual Report of the Manager for the year ended 30 June 1926, to which are appended Statements of Accounts, Balance-sheet, Statistics, and Other Information.* Brisbane, 1926. 51 pp., illustr. 2s.

Home Secretary's Department. *Annual Report of the Commissioner of Public Health to 30 June 1926.* Brisbane, 1926. 32 pp. 1s.

AUSTRIA

Bundesministerium für soziale Verwaltung. Zentral-Gewerbe-Inspektorate. *Bericht der Gewerbe-Inspektoren über ihre Amtstätigkeit im Jahre 1925.* Vienna, 1926. L + 185 pp., illustr.

Report on factory inspection in Austria during 1925.

BULGARIA

Direction générale de la Statistique. *Annuaire statistique du Royaume de Bulgarie 1925.* XVIIe année. Sofia, 1926. XXXII + 548 pp.

Statistical year book of Bulgaria for 1925.

CANADA

Department of Agriculture. Dominion Experimental Farms. Division of Field Husbandry. *Report of the Dominion Field Husbandman for the year 1925.* Ottawa, 1926. 38 pp., maps and illustrations.

The report deals with agricultural economics and technical cultivation problems. It gives the results of an enquiry into the operating cost of farm machinery in Canada which are particularly interesting; two thousand replies were received to a questionnaire sent to all parts of the Dominion. The average length of life of a large number of farm machines, the annual cost of farm machinery (including depreciation, interest, repairs and housing) and the acreage covered are computed and a general figure of cost is given (separate for the Eastern and the Prairie Provinces, and separate for ordinary and for special machinery).

Attention may also be drawn to the tables on the cost of production of various crops grown on the Central Experimental Farm.

ONTARIO

Department of Agriculture. *Annual Report of the Statistics Branch 1925.* Part I. *Agricultural Statistics.* Part II. *Chattel Mortgages.* Toronto, 1926. 48 pp.

—— *Report of the Minister of Agriculture for the year ending 31 October 1925.* Toronto, 1926. 124 pp.

The report states that the Department of Agriculture carried out more useful and effective work during 1925 than in previous years. Chapters are devoted to the activities of the Ontario Agricultural College, Veterinary College, the Women's Institutes. Colonisation, the Agricultural Development Board, etc.

—— *Report of the Women's Institutes of the Province of Ontario 1925.* Toronto, 1926. 63 pp.

The report gives an account of the activities of Women's Institutes in Ontario during 1925. The Women's Institutes exist for educational and social purposes; they seek to improve local conditions through education and better schools and by increasing the interest taken in community affairs. During the summer of 1925 693 meetings were held at which lectures were given on subjects of interest to women; during the winter short courses were arranged on such subjects as home economics, home nursing, millinery, etc. Attention was also given to increasing the interest taken in literature, music, art, etc.

CZECHOSLOVAKIA

Ministerstvo Sociulni Péce. *Zprava o uredni cinnosti zivnostenskych inspektorů v roce 1925.* Prague, 1926. 467 pp.

Report on labour inspection in Czechoslovakia for 1925. This report will be analysed in a future number of the *Review.*

DENMARK

Socialministeriets Arbejdsudvalg. *Betaenkning angaaende Foranstaltninger til Imödegaaelse af Arbejdslösheden i 1926-1927.* Copenhagen, Schultz, 1926. 48 pp.

This report of the Unemployment Board of the Danish Ministry of Social Affairs is introduced by a section giving a brief account of the measures for the relief of unemployment taken in 1925-1926, and in particular of the effects of the Acts of 1 December 1925 and 31 March 1926, relating respectively to measures for combating unemployment and to measures for maintaining employment in undertakings suffering from depression.

The principal section of the report, on " measures taken in 1926-1927 ", contains statistical information on existing unemployment, supplemented by detailed statistics included in the appendices.

The report further discusses both the question of promoting public works and that of supporting private industry. The Committee as a whole is of the opinion that unemployment cannot be overcome by the promotion of public works, and that the only way is to counteract the industrial depression from which the community is suffering partly on account of the rise in the value of the krone.

A detailed account of the measures for dealing with unemployment proposed by the Danish Government, largely on the basis of the above report, is to be found in *Industrial and Labour Information*, Volume XX, No. 8, p. 333.

Sundhedsstyrelsen. *Medicinalberetning for den Danske Stat for aaret 1924.* By H. J. HANSEN and Robert NEILSEN. Sundhedsstyrelsens medicinalstatistiske Kontor. Copenhagen, H. Hagerup, 1926. VI + 253 pp.

Statistical report of the Danish Public Health Department for 1924.

FINLAND

Socialmuseum. *Statens Utställning för Arbetarskydd och Välfärd. Instruktiv Katalog.* Helsingfors, Statsradet Tryckeri, 1926. VIII + 108 pp., plans and illustrations.

Descriptive and fully illustrated catalogue of the permanent labour protection and social welfare exhibition of the State Social Museum.

GERMANY

Reichsgesundheitsamt. *Arbeiten aus dem Reichsgesundheitsamte : Festband anlässlich der Feier des Fünfzigjährigen Bestehens des Reichsgesundheitsamtes im Juni 1926.* Bd. 57. Berlin, Julius Springer, 1926. VI + 855 pp., illustr.

This volume, published on the occasion of the fiftieth anniversary of the foundation of the German Federal Department of Public Health, describes important chemical, medical, bacteriological and veterinary work carried out under the auspices of the Department.

GREAT BRITAIN

Department of Overseas Trade. *Report on the Financial and Commercial Situation of Austria revised to September 1926.* By O. S. PHILLPOTS, O.B.E. London. H.M. Stationery Office, 1926. 36 pp. 1s. 6d.

The report includes, in addition to information regarding commerce and finance, a short review of the industrial crisis in Austria, prices and cost of living, wages, labour disputes, unemployment, immigration and emigration.

Department of Scientific and Industrial Research. *Light Distribution from Industrial Reflector Fitting No. 1 (British Engineering Standard).* By H. BUCKLEY and C. J. W. GRIEVESON. Illumination Research, Technical Paper No. 3. London, H.M. Stationery Office, 1926. V + 26 pp., tables and diagrams. 1s.

—— *The Terminology of Illumination and Vision.* Illumination Research. Technical Paper No. 1. London, H.M. Stationery Office, 1926. IV + 21 pp., diagrams, 9d.

The pamphlet contains explanatory notes of the technical terms commonly employed in photometry and illumination, ophthalmology and physiology.

—— *The Transmission Factor of Commercial Window Glasses.* By A. K. TAYLOR and C. J. W. GRIEVESON. Illumination Research, Technical Paper No. 2. London, H.M. Stationery Office, 1926. IV + 10 pp., diagrams. 6d.

Describes measurements made at the National Physical Laboratory, with the object of determining the transmission factors, under various conditions, of a number of different kinds of glass commonly used for the windows of domestic or industrial buildings.

Development Commission. *Sixteenth Report of the Development Commissioners for the Year ended 31 March 1926.* London, H.M. Stationery Office, 1926. 157 pp. 3s.

The Development Commissioners give annual and capital grants for agricultural education and research and for purposes connected with rural economy. Their activities in encouraging both research and education are fully reviewed in their annual reports, which are important documents for the study of vocational rural education in England.

Home Office. *Report on the Incidence of Silicosis in the Pottery Industry.* By Dr. C. L. Sutherland and Dr. S. Bryson. London, H.M. Stationery Office, 1926. 51 pp. 1s. 6d.

The inquiry was undertaken with special reference to the making of a scheme under the Workmen's Compensation (Silicosis) Acts, 1918 and 1924. It consisted of the clinical and radiographic examination of a representative number of workers in the different processes in the pottery industry in which the workers are known to be exposed to the inhalation of dust. A total of 568 workers were examined, 344 male workers and 224 women workers. Seventy-six cases of silicosis were revealed among the men and 11 among the women. A significant feature of the report is the frequency with which fibrosis of the lungs was diagnosed by medical examination at a period of employment earlier than that at which silicosis was found by radiological examination in the same occupational groups. The broad result of the enquiry is to indicate that silicosis is liable to be produced in many occupations in the industry.

Imperial Conference 1926. Summary of Proceedings. Cmd. 2768 (Appendices published separately in Cmd. 2769). London, H.M. Stationery Office, 1926. 61 pp. 1s.

Medical Research Council. Industrial Fatigue Research Board. *A Psychological Study of Individual Differences in Accident Rates.* By Eric Farmer, M.A., and E. G. Chambers, M.A. Report No. 38. London, H.M. Stationery Office, 1926. iv + 44 pp. 2s. 6d.

Medical Research Council and Department of Scientific and Industrial Research. *The Relation between Illumination and Efficiency in Fine Work (Typesetting by Hand).* By H. C. Weston and A. K. Taylor. Joint Report of the Industrial Fatigue Research Board and the Illumination Research Committee. London, H.M. Stationery Office, 1926. v + 11 pp. 6d.

The experiments on which this report is based were made under actual working conditions in a small composing room. They throw light on the relation between inadequate illumination and diminished output, errors, ocular and general fatigue. The main conclusion drawn is that output does not reach its maximum daylight value until an artificial illumination of the order of 20 foot-candles is attained, which, so far as can be ascertained, is a very much higher illumination than that usually found in printing offices at present. The report gives some practical indications regarding the artificial lighting of composing rooms.

Ministry of Agriculture and Fisheries. *Report of Proceedings under the Small Holding Colonies Acts, 1916 and 1918, and Sailors and Soldiers (Gifts for Land Settlement) Act, 1916, for the years 1923-24, 1924-25, and 1925-26. In pursuance of Section 10 of the Small Holding Colonies Act, 1916.* London, H.M. Stationery Office, 1926. 86 pp. 4s. 6d.

A general review of the management of Government estates for the settlement of ex-Service men, covering the years 1923-1926. The report describes the steps taken in accordance with a decision to reduce the area under the Ministry's direct administration by disposing of a number of settlements managed as smallholdings or as profit-sharing farms. Two profit-sharing estates remain under the control of the Government, one at Amesbury and one at Patrington.

It has been decided to surrender the latter settlement on Lady Day, March 1927. The full history of this settlement is given in an appendix; it makes interesting reading. In view of the continued loss incurred on this settlement it was considered necessary to obtain an independent opinion on the working of the farm, and the Ministry of Agriculture therefore appointed Mr. W. GAVIN, C.B.E., to undertake a thorough investigation with the object of ascertaining whether it might be possible, without loss, to carry on the Patrington Settlement as an ex-Service men's colony under a profit-sharing scheme. Mr. Gavin, in his report, states that, in his opinion, £1,000 per annum would be required by the Ministry to carry on the estate as a profit-sharing ex-Service men's settlement, but that if the estate were subdivided into separate farms it would be quite possible to find a tenant farmer for each farm who would be prepared to pay a fair rent and to accept the risk of making an adequate livelihood; it is also possible that the new tenants would agree to take on some at least of the ex-Service men settled on the area.

The history of other estates under the Acts mentioned is briefly indicated.

Ministry of Labour. *League of Nations. International Labour Conference, Eighth Session, Geneva, 26 May-5 June 1926. Report by the British Government Delegates to the Minister of Labour.* London, H.M. Stationery Office, 1926. 14 pp. 3d.

—— *League of Nations. International Labour Conference, Ninth Session, Geneva, 7-24 June 1926. Report by the British Government Delegates to the Minister of Labour.* London, H.M. Stationery Office, 1926. 14 pp. 3d.

Registry of Friendly Societies. *Report of the Chief Registrar of Friendly Societies for the year, 1924.* Part 2. *Friendly Societies.* London, H.M. Stationery Office, 1926. 38 pp. 4s.

—— *Report of the Chief Registrar of Friendly Societies for the year 1925.* London, H.M. Stationery Office, 1926. 46 pp. 9d.

STRAITS SETTLEMENTS

Labour Department. *Annual Report on the Working of the Labour Department for the year 1925.* Supplement to the *Straits Settlements Government Gazette*, No. 92, 10 September 1926. Kuala Lumpur. 25 pp.

This report was analysed in the *Monthly Record of Migration*, December 1926.

NETHERLANDS

Bureau municipal de Statistique de la ville d'Utrecht. *Chiffres sur les salaires des ouvriers au service de la ville d'Utrecht pendant l'année 1925.* Utrecht, 1926. 10 pp.

Statistics of wages of municipal workers in Utrecht for 1925. The headings to the tables and explanatory notes are in Dutch and in French.

SWITZERLAND

Bureau fédéral de Statistique. *Recensement fédéral de la population au 1er décembre 1920. Répartition géographique des industries suisses.* Bulletin de statistique suisse, VIIIème année, 1926, 2ème fascicule. Berne, 1926. 15 pp. and 24 maps. 4 frs.

Contains a series of maps showing the results of the census of the population of Switzerland carried out 1 December 1920. They indicate the distribution of the population in industry and agriculture and in the various districts. Retrospective reviews for 1910 and 1888 are included. The text is in French and in German.

UNION OF SOUTH AFRICA

Eighth and Ninth International Labour Conferences 1926. Report by South African Government Delegates. Pretoria, Govt. Printing and Stationery Office, 1926. 8 pp. 6d.

Extracts from this report were published in *Industrial and Labour Information*, Vol. XX, No. 5, 1 November 1926, pp. 187-189.

UNITED STATES

Department of Labour. Bureau of Labour Statistics. *Hours and Earnings in Anthracite and Bituminous Coal Mining 1922 and 1924.* Bulletin No. 416, Wages and Hours of Labour Series. Washington, Govt. Printing Office, 1926. IV + 92 pp. 15 cents.

—— —— *Proceedings of the Industrial Accident Prevention Conference held at Washington, 14-16 July 1926.* Bulletin No. 428, Industrial Accidents and Hygiene Series. Washington, 1926. VII + 169 pp. 30 cents.

—— —— *Wages, Hours, and Productivity in the Pottery Industry, 1925.* Bulletin No. 412, Wages and Hours of Labour Series. Washington, Govt. Printing Office, 1926. III + 164 pp. 30 cents.

Treasury Department. United States Internal Revenue. *Statistics of Income from Returns of Net Income for 1924.* Washington, Govt. Printing Office, 1926. V + 354 pp. 50 cents.

United States Senate Commission of Gold and Silver Enquiry. *European Currency and Finance. Foreign Currency and Exchange Investigation.* Serial 9, Vol. II. By John Parke YOUNG, Ph.D. Washington, Govt. Printing Office, 1925. XI + 411 pp.

Volume I of the Commission's report on European currency and finance was analysed in the *International Labour Review*, Vol. XI, No. 5, May 1925. The second volume deals with twelve countries not included in Vol. I. It gives a brief description of pre-war currency systems in these twelve countries, an account of war and post-war developments, and a discussion of efforts made toward currency and financial reconstruction. It also contains, in Part II, statistical tables relating to banking, currency, exchange rates, prices, purchasing power parities, trade, and government finances of the countries treated.

ALABAMA

Bureau of Insurance. *Annual Report of the Superintendent of Insurance for the year ending 31 December 1925. Fire, Life, Miscellaneous, Mutual and Fraternal, and Reciprocal Insurance.* Birmingham, 1926. 441 pp.

NEW YORK

Commission of Housing and Regional Planning. *Report, 7 May 1926.* Albany, 1926. 82 pp., map and diagrams.

The report, which is provided with a large number of maps and diagrams, describes the structure and resources of the State of New York and suggests the broad outlines of a plan for its future development. The Commission recommends a fuller economic utilisation of the resources of the different regions, reafforestation and development of dairying and cattle breeding in the highlands where the rainfall is heaviest and near the source of the rivers where cultivation is still little developed and land is consequently cheap. Intensive culture should be confined to regions where the soil is specially fertile and climatic conditions most favourable, and industrial centres to regions rich in mineral resources and of easy access.

PENNSYLVANIA

Department of Labour and Industry. *The Department of Labour and Industry. Its Organisation and Operation.* Special Bulletin No. 14. Harrisburg, 1926. 51 pp.

NON-OFFICIAL PUBLICATIONS

Acito, Alfredo. *Corporazioni e Sindacati nella Storia, nello Stato e nei Partiti politici.* Preface by Agostino LANZILLO. Milan, Iginio Trasi, 1924. 232 pp. 8 lire.

Adzija, Dr. Bozidar. *Medjunarodna Organizacija Rada.* Zagreb, 1926. 46 pp.

The author describes the origin and development of the International Labour Organisation, gives an account of the work it has already achieved, and adds in the appendix a translation of Part XIII of the Peace Treaty of Versailles.

Agricultural Economics Research Institute. *The Rural Industries of England and Wales.* I. *Timber and Underwood Industries and some Village Workshops.* By Helen E. FitzRandolph and M. Doriel Hay. Oxford, Clarendon Press, 1926. xix + 239 pp., illustr.

A survey of rural industries in England and Wales was carried out over three years by a group of workers specially appointed by the Agricultural Economics Research Institute. The final reports dealing with the various industries are collected in four volumes as follows:

(1) Timber and Underwood Industries and some Village Workshops.
(2) Osier growing and Basketry, and some Rural Factories.
(3) Decorative Crafts and Rural Potteries.
(4) Rural Industries in Wales.

The first of these volumes, now under consideration, contains a general introduction in which are considered the distribution of the various rural industries, local conditions, and the bearing of different factors on the future of rural industries. One of the most outstanding problems is shown to be the lack of young workers. Young workers will not enter rural industries unless they can see in them some chance of future development, nor are they prepared to serve long terms of apprenticeship. The five or seven years of service as an apprentice are now generally admitted to be unnecessary if really intelligent instruction is given. But this is just what is often lacking in the villages. The whole problem of rural education is involved, and particularly the question of technical classes in villages. Many rural crafts are dying out owing to the linking up of the villages to the large towns, where large-scale production, permitting the use of machinery and electricity, is possible. Foreign competition, lack of touch with suitable markets, etc. are also mentioned as factors affecting rural industries. A number of industries continue to flourish in the more remote villages which are more or less self-supporting and which are neither very rich nor very poor. The future of many rural industries depends largely on the extent to which they can make use of labour-saving machinery and at the same time retain the valuable characteristics of individual craft work. It is pointed out that organisation and co-operation in buying and selling would improve matters, but technical instruction is stated to be the most outstanding need.

Allevi, G. *L'assicurazione infortuni e la valutazione dei danni.* Biblioteca medica pratico-universitaria. Milan, Societa an. Istituto Editoriale scientifico. 1927. xi + 414 pp.

The treatment of industrial accidents is now recognised as a special branch of medicine. But the estimate of the injury sustained cannot be systematised in a theory, since the criteria which guide the expert in each particular case are subjective. It must, however, be admitted that the expert should base his conclusions on thorough medical and legal knowledge and a long professional experience in order to discuss competently the cases submitted to him. Daily study, a minute and exact analysis of the effects of lesions, and a thorough acquaintance with the literature of the subject are essential. Should the victim of an industrial accident submit a claim for compensation, or, on the other hand, the insurance fund seek to guard itself against exaggerated or ill-founded claims, the doctor, acting as the medical expert or as the champion of either the victim's rights or the interests of the fund, must be in a position to discuss controversial cases and to meet any objections raised with a closely reasoned reply.

Mr. Allevi's work contains numerous personal contributions to the data on the subject which are derived from his long experience in this branch of medicine. In the first part he examines the principles and development of insurance against accidents. After considering the legal and social conception of accidents and analysing the Italian law and the laws of other countries relating to the subject, he dwells more particularly on contributing factors in accidents, safety measures, and assistance to victims of accidents. The chapters devoted to the legal and

social conception of accidents, causes of accidents and the protection of workers against occupational risks, deserve special mention. In the second part, the author reviews the different lesions due to industrial occupations, tumours, infectious and parasitic diseases, poisoning, neurosis, trauma, traumatic lesions, etc. In connection with the question of compensation a special chapter is included devoted to 'simulation', which completes this important work.

American Federation of Teachers. *Mass Education for Workers. Second Annual Conference of Teachers in Workers' Education at Brookwood, 20-22 February 1925.* Edited by a Committee of Local No. 189, A.F.T. Brookwood, Katonah, N.Y., 1925. 93 pp.

—— *The Promotion and Maintenance of Workers' Education. Third Annual Conference of Teachers in Workers' Education at Brookwood, 19-22 February 1926.* Edited by a Committee of Local No. 189, A.F.T. Brookwood, Katonah, N.Y., 1926. 105 pp.

Amicale des régisseurs de théâtres français. *Compte rendu de l'Assemblée générale du 26 mai 1926.* Paris. 46 pp.

Proceedings of the General Meeting of the French Stage Managers' Association held 26 May 1926.

Annuaire général des sociétés coopératives de France et des colonies 1926. Cinquième année. Paris, 5 rue Joubert, 1926. 1013 pp. 30 fr.

Co-operative year book of France and her colonies for 1926.

Arbeiterkammer Luxemburg. *Bericht über ihre Tätigkeit im ersten Geschäftsjahr, Juni 1925-Juni 1926.* Luxemburg, 1926. 176 pp.

Report of the Luxemburg Workers' Chamber for the year 1925-1926.

Arbeitsgemeinschaft der schaffenden Landwirte, Pächter und Sieden. *Die Einheitsfront der schaffenden Bauern 1925.* Berlin, Verlag Neues Dorf. 24 pp.

Azuar, Severino. *El Retiro Obrero y la Agricultura.* Madrid, Sobrinos de la Sucesora de M. Minuesa de los Rios, 1925. 104 pp.

Baignères, M. G. *Ascenseurs et monte-charges. Dispositifs de sécurité.* Encyclopédie industrielle et commerciale. Paris, Librairie de l'enseignement technique, 1926. 52 pp., illustr.

A technical study on safety appliances connected with lifts and elevators.

Belli, C. M. *Igiene delle navi mercantili e militari.* Milan, Società editrice libraria, 1926. XI + 646 pp. 55 lire.

Second edition, considerably enlarged, of a work long known to experts on the health of seamen and hygiene on board ship. The author deals in great detail with physio-pathology in the mercantile marine and the navy. He examines in turn external conditions (atmospheric conditions at sea), working premises (boilers, engines, hold, etc.), living conditions and sleeping accommodation, ventilation, lighting, heating, provision of fresh water, disposal of refuse and sanitary arrangements. A special chapter is devoted to the work of seamen and an important part of the book to the study of infectious and parasitic diseases of seamen and prophylactic measures.

In the appendix the author considers physio-pathological problems connected with life in a submarine.

Bernardino, Anselmo. *Rassegne di economia e di finanza.* Rome, P. Maglione and C. Strini, 1925. 121 pp.

Bonnet, George-Edgar. *Les expériences monétaires contemporaines.* Paris, Armand Colin, 1926. 218 pp. 9 frs. 80; bound 11 frs. 90.

Mr. Bonnet, as deputy director of the Suez Canal Company, has been constantly called upon to deal with questions of exchange and currency; he was therefore particularly well qualified to write this book. His treatment of the subject should make clear to the general reader some of the most intricate problems involved. He first reviews the monetary evolution in various countries during

the last twelve years, then examines in what measure modern experience demands a revision of accepted theories.

Bready, J. Wesley. *Lord Shaftesbury and Social-Industrial Progress.* London, Allen and Unwin, 1926. 446 pp. 16s.

The author undertook this work, he tells us, as a result of investigations into the attitude of organised religion to social and industrial problems. These investigations led him to conclude that the Evangelical movement started by Wesley in the eighteenth century, more than any other religious movement, affected the social developments of the English speaking world. To Lord Shaftesbury, the lay representative of the movement, is due the immense social advance recorded in these pages. Since his work cannot be fully understood apart from the faith which inspired it, the author devotes the first part of the book to Shaftesbury's ideals and aspirations, the influences of his early upbringing and his place in the thought of his day. In the second he tells the story of the great reformer's life work.

The book includes a bibliography which, Mr. Bready states, " strives to establish the continuity of interest between Shaftesbury and his religious forerunners " and " also attempts to suggest the social problem in its post-Shaftesbury aspects ".

Cechrak, Dr. Cyril. *Nezamestnanost.* Volume 16 in the collection " Pravnické Fakulty University v Bratislavé. " Bratislava, 1926. 169 pp.

Dr. Cechrak, professor in the University of Prague, divides his study on unemployment into two parts. The first, which is theoretical, is devoted to the definition of unemployment, its causes and effects. In the second, the author examines measures to combat unemployment, the effects of economic policy on unemployment, the organisation of employment (placing and vocational guidance), social insurance, emigration, etc. The matter is very clearly presented. Frequent references are made to the work and the publications of the International Labour Office.

Chlepner, B. S. *La banque en Belgique. Etude historique et économique.* Tome premier. *Le marché financier belge avant 1850.* Université libre de Bruxelles, Institut de Sociologie Solvay. Brussels, Maurice Lamertin, 1926. 429 pp.

No one who has studied the important part played by banking in the development and the fluctuations of industry, and its effects on the social conditions of the working classes, will be surprised at attention being drawn in these pages to Mr. Chlepner's striking work on banking in Belgium, the first volume of which deals with the money market in that country before 1850. An outline of the origin and development of banking institutions helps the reader to understand their present working. The author has not confined himself to an exposition of facts but has also given prominence to the development of ideas.

Cilla, Nicola. *Effetti Economici del Fascismo.* Milan, Società Editrice " l'Unità ", 1925. 119 pp.

Cornélissen, Christian. *Traité général de science économique.* Tome III. *Théorie du capital et du profit.* Bibliothèque internationale d'économie politique. Paris, Marcel Giard, 1927. In two volumes, 466 and 662 pp. 120 frs.

This treatise contains an exposition of Mr. Cornélissen's theory of the organisation of industry and the nature of profit. The first volume (*Théorie de la valeur*), published some years ago, dealt with the theory of value, the second (*Théorie du salaire et du travail salarié*) sought to apply the general principles laid down regarding value and price to labour.

The first of the two volumes now under consideration (*Théorie du capital et du profit*) deals with the technical organisation of modern production : classification of industries, mass production, standardisation, time measurement, etc., combines, cartels, associations, pools and trusts. It also examines the sources of profits. The second volume considers the influence of external factors on profits. The author makes a lengthy study of the effects of economic crises and of the rate and fluctuations of profits.

Some chapters on social evolution, in which various suggested solutions of the social problem are examined, complete the work.

Delpeuch, André. *Le Cinéma.* Bibliothèque sociale des métiers publiée sous la direction de Georges Renard. Paris, Gaston Doin, 1927. VI + 292 pp. 10 frs. + 40%.

A study on the cinematograph industry, its history, technique, personnel, and its future. A list of trade unions of workers in the industry is included.

Deutscher Handwerks- und Gewerbekammertag und Reichsverband des deutschen Handwerks. *Bericht über die Wirtschaftslage des Handwerks in der Zeit vom 1. Januar bis 31. März 1926.* Hanover, 1926. 39 pp.

Report on the position of German handicraftsmen for the period 1 January to 31 March 1926, published by the German Chamber of Arts and Crafts and the German Federation of Employers of Handicraftsmen.

Drechsel, Max. *Le traité de Versailles et le mécanisme des conventions internationales du Travail.* Preface by Albert THOMAS. Etudes politiques et sociales. IV. Brussels, l'Eglantine, 1926. IX + XXIII + 257 + V pp. 10 frs.

This dissertation, undertaken under the auspices of Mr. Ernest Mahaim, professor in the University of Liège (Faculty of Law), relates to the mechanism of international labour Conventions as outlined in the Treaty of Versailles. It is not a study of the International Labour Organisation, neither does it examine the Conventions in themselves. It is strictly confined to a methodical study of the provisions of Part XIII of the Peace Treaty relating to the elaboration, ratification and application of international labour Conventions. In the first chapter the author recalls the historical facts essential to a clear understanding of this study. The second chapter, intended as a basis for comparison, is devoted to the labour provisions of treaties concluded prior to the creation of the Permanent Labour Organisation. After defining the competence of the Organisation itself, Mr. Drechsel examines in succession the elaboration, ratification and application of the international labour Conventions, and, finally, the work accomplished by the Organisation.

In the preface to this volume, Mr. Albert Thomas answers certain questions raised by the author and praises the clearness and excellence of his method. "which", he says, "permits a complete understanding of a human institution, and explains the International Labour Organisation by the history of its development."

The volume includes a bibliography, two appendices and a table showing the progress of ratification of the international labour Conventions at July 1926.

******* *Europäische Zollunion. Beiträge zu Problem und Lösung.* Edited by Dr. H. HEIMAN. Berlin, Reimar Hobbing, 1926. 278 pp.

Under this title are brought together a number of studies by well-known economists, including Franz Eulenberg, Alfred Weber, August Muller, and Arthur Blaustein. They deal with the problem of the organisation of a tariff union among European countries. The economic centre of Europe being France and Germany, a customs union between these countries would form the nucleus of a more extensive union. Whether it would be possible and desirable to include Great Britain and Russia is one of the principal questions discussed. The contributors to this volume examine in turn the difficulties attaching to the organisation of a union of this nature and the conditions under which it could be formed; for instance, a certain necessary uniformity in the commercial and social policy of the member states, equal exchange throughout the territories forming part of the Union, and international control of any "cartels" or trusts.

Fédération nationale du Personnel des Services publics des départements, des villes et des communes de France et des colonies. *Quatorzième Congrès fédéral national tenu à Levallois-Perret (Seine) les 22, 23 et 24 août 1925. Compte rendu.* Versailles, 1926. 221 pp.

Report of the fourteenth Congress of the French National Federation of Employees in the Public Services, held 22-24 August 1925.

Foerster, Robert F. and Dietel, Else H. *Employee Stock Ownership in the United States.* Princeton University, 1926. VIII + 174 pp.

This book contains an interesting survey of the various plans in existence in the United States by which employees acquire stock in the companies which employ them. No attempt is made to advocate or to disparage any particular type of plan or to give statistics of the frequency of certain characteristic provisions, as it is held that in a movement so subject to imitation statistical frequency cannot be taken as a criterion of the excellence of such provisions.

The study is divided into three chapters: the first giving the basis of the movement, the second the analyses of the various plans and their results, and the third the questions of policy involved. The appendices give a list of companies which have introduced stock ownership plans and summaries of these plans.

Giovanni, Friedrich. *Die Maifeierbewegung.* Sozialwissenschaftliche Abhandlungen. Karlsruhe, Verlag Braun, 1925. XI + 140 pp.

Gosseries, Fernand. *L'habitation à bon marché en Belgique.* Brussels, Edition de la Société d'Etudes morales, sociales et juridiques. 1926. 247 pp. 9 frs.

A well documented study on the development and activities of the Belgian Association for Cheap Housing, by the Director of the Association, and a review of the attempts made in Belgium towards the provision of cheap dwellings.

Handbuch der Schweizerischen Wirtschaft. Manuel de l'Economie suisse. Edited by Arthur KATZ-FORSTNER. Berlin-Hallensee, Internationale Verlag Gesellschaft. 1926. IX + 325 pp.

A handbook designed to supplement the information given in the reviews of the economic conditions of various countries published in the *Annales de l'économie publique internationale*, which take into account changes during and since the war. The handbook deals with conditions in Switzerland, a country which, if not directly involved in the World War, suffered all the economic repercussions of the conflict. The more important parts of the book are devoted to finance, credit and insurance, communications, industries (mechanical engineering, watch and clock making, textile, wood, paper, tanning, lime and cement, pottery, building, dairying and cigarette industries) and agriculture. Each article, the text of which is in French and in German, is contributed by an authority on the subject dealt with and contains up-to-date information.

Hansson, Sigfrid. *Solidaritet och monopolism. Fackföreningsrörelsens aktuella problem.* Stockholm, Tidens Förlag, 1926. 64 pp.

In this booklet the editor of the *Fackföreningsrörelsen*, the organ of the Swedish Confederation of Trade Unions, makes an interesting study of the problem of solidarity considered in the light of the break-up of the wage level, and the tendencies towards a "closed union" policy which have become apparent of late in the Swedish trade union movement (e.g. in the building trade) and which were among the most important problems dealt with by the last Trade Union Congress (see *Industrial and Labour Information*, Vol. XX, No. 4, p. 164).

Hayward, W. R. and Johnson, G. W. *The Evolution of Labour, Past, Present and Future.* London, Duckworth, 1926. 224 pp.

This little book makes no claim to be considered a scientific study; it is a simply-told tale of the evolution of labour, designed to give the reader a rudimentary knowledge of the economic system under which he lives and a hopeful attitude towards the future, which, the authors hold, each individual worker is largely instrumental in shaping.

Heindl, Dr. Hermann. *Das Arbeitsrecht in der Land- und Forstwirtschaft.* Herausgegeben von der Agrarpolitischen Kommission der Deutschösterreichischen Sozialdemokratie. Agrarsozialistische Bücherei. Vienna, Verlag der Wiener Volksbuchhandlung, 1925. 307 pp.

Honegger, Hans. *Volkswirtschaftliche Systeme der Gegenwart.* Braun's Kleine Handbücher. Karlsruhe, G. Braun, 1925. IX + 139 pp.

A critical analysis of the ideas, systems and theories tending to modify political economy in Germany since 1910. The author selected this date because it was that of the publication of works of Oppenheimer, Ammon, and Schumpeter, which have opened up new avenues of thought. Reference is made

in the introduction to the principles of "pure economics" (*rein ökonomische Schule*) and "marginal utility" (*Grenznutzenlehre*) and to the theories of Schumpeter, Böhn-Bawerk, and Wieser. The four following chapters deal with neo-liberalism (Gustav Cassel, Oswalt, Budge, Ammon, Schumpeter), neo-mercantilism (Robert Liefman), neo-socialism (Oppenheimer, Stammler, Diehl), and neo-romanticism (Othmar Spann). The work includes a short bibliographical notice. The author gives special prominence to Schumpeter's "Theory of economic development", which he regards as forming the basis of the new economic theory and the starting-point of future theoretical research.

Mr. Honegger's book is, we believe, the first general exposition of the new economic theories, and as such deserves special mention. It is designed as an introduction to a more important work by the same author, entiled "Theories of political economy based on considerations relating to credit and finance", which is in preparation.

Hucho, Dr. Wolfgang. *Die Naturalentlöhnung in der deutschen Landwirtschaft.* Berlin, Paul Parey, 1925. 80 pp.

Industrial Accident Prevention Associations. *Report of the Safety Convention and Annual General Meeting of the Industrial Accident Prevention Associations held at Toronto, 11-12 May 1926.* Toronto, 1926. 166 pp.

Janko, Dr. Jaroslav. *O Nezamestnanosti v Ceskoslovensku. Statistiska Studie.* Publikace Socialniho Ustavu C. 25. Prague, Ministerstva soc. péce, 1926. 109 pp.

The author explains the basis and methods of compiling statistics of unemployment in Czechoslovakia, including statistics relating to the labour market and unemployment relief (more especially the administration of relief according to the Ghent system). He passes in review the attempts made to render statistics of unemployment internationally comparable and shows the value of this branch of statistics in Czechoslovakia. A bibliography completes the volume. The subject of this study will be dealt with in an article by the same author which will be published shortly in the *International Labour Review.*

Kanekar, P. G. *Serfdom in the Konkan.* A Reprint of Articles in *The Servant of India* for February and March 1926. Poona, 1926. 59 pp. Annas 8.

The author maintains that the Khoti system of land tenure in the districts of Ratnagiri and Kolaba in the Konkan (Bombay Presidency) has reduced many of the actual cultivators of the land to the position of serfs, especially in Ratnagiri. The root of the evil would appear to lie principally in the precariousness of the tenure under which tenants hold their lands and in certain cases their obligation to submit to "veth" (translated by the author as a form of "forced labour") exacted by the Khoti landlords.

It is stated that the Khoti Settlement Act, 1880 (with later amendments), should afford some measure of protection, but the Act, for all practical purposes, is said to be a dead letter. The majority of the occupants would appear to have been reduced to the position of mere tenants-at-will who are liable to be ejected arbitrarily by their landlords, sometimes even without compensation for improvements. The landlords are in a position to enforce "veth" by preventing the tenants from using the common grazing lands, which they claim as their property, and from using the village wells. It is also stated that the houses of most of the cultivators stand on grounds the ownership of which is claimed by the Khots, and those who have incurred the displeasure of their landlords can be made to pull down their houses and leave the place. In these circumstances the cultivator is obliged to submit to "veth" in order to avoid the consequences of recalcitrance. Some of the more objectionable of these abuses are prohibited by the Khoti Act, but the ignorance and poverty of the tenants would appear to make it impossible for them to assert their rights even when the law is on their side.

The solution proposed is the abolition of the whole system of Khoti tenure. It is admitted, however, that such a solution may not be immediately practicable. The author therefore proposes remedial measures to prevent the graver abuses. The matter is being enquired into by a Government Commissioner, it would appear, owing to agitation by the cultivators. The author appeals to Govern-

ment officials and public men of all communities and parties for an examination of the question along non-party and non-communal lines. He also suggests that the question of land tenure should be examined by the Royal Commission on Indian Agriculture and for this purpose the terms of reference of the Commission should, if necessary, be widened.

Labour Party. *" On the Dole " — or Off ! What to Do with Britain's Workless Workers.* Report on the Prevention of Unemployment by the Joint Committee representing the General Council of the Trades Union Congress, the National Executive Committee of the Labour Party, and the Executive Committee of the Parliamentary Labour Party. London, 1926. 32 pp. 2d.

A pamphlet setting forth British Labour policy for the prevention and mitigation of unemployment.

Labour Research Department. (a) *British Imperialism in East Africa.* Colonial Series, No. 1. 64 pp., map. 1s. (b) *British Imperialism in Malaya.* Colonial Series, No. 2. 64 pp. map. 1s. London, 1926.

These short studies of the history of the exploitation of the areas in question, of the financial interests involved, and of the conditions of the native working populations are written from a very definite point of view.

Lacaisse, René. *L'hygiène internationale et la Société des Nations.* Preface by Dr. G. Dequidt. Paris, Editions du " Mouvement sanitaire ", 1926. 231 pp.

The author describes international action taken in connection with health matters prior to the institution of the League of Nations, the Health Organisation of the League and the work it has accomplished in promoting co-operation in public health measures and the campaign against disease. He devotes a chapter to industrial hygiene and the work of the International Labour Office.

Landsorganisationen i Sverige. *Protokoll förda vid Landsorganisationens i Sverige nionde ordinarie kongress i Stockholm den 29 aug.-5 sept. 1926.* Stockholm, A. B. Arbetarnas Tryckeri, 1926. 456 pp.

Minutes of the proceedings of the ninth ordinary Congress of the Swedish Confederation of Trade Unions, of which an account was given in *Industrial and Labour Information*, Vol. XX, No. 4, p. 162.

Lansac, Maurice. *Les conceptions méthodologiques et sociales de Charles Fourier. Leur influence.* Paris, J. Vrin, 1926. 144 pp. 12 frs.

The author examines the influence of Fourier's ideas and those of his disciples on the economic and political conceptions of the present day and their application. The influence of the " Ecole sociétaire " on the social movement has been insisted on by members of this school, but it is denied by many writers. Mr. Lansac attempts to show that the seed sown has put forth shoots even after the decline of the school. He deals in these pages with method in social science and the economic interpretation of history, and, in the second part, compares Fourier's conceptions of social evolution with those of Karl Marx ; his thesis will be concluded in a further volume.

Lapcevitch Dragisa. *Strajkbreherstvo i Zute Organizacije.* Belgrade, Stamparia " Rodoljub ", 1926. 31 pp.

The author, former Socialist leader and well-known publicist, discusses the subject of strike-breaking and the rôle of " yellow " organisations.

Lindley, M. F. *The Acquisition and Government of Backward Territory in International Law.* Being a Treatise on the Law and Practice relating to Colonial Expansion. Longmans, Green and Co., 1926. xx + 391 pp.

Mr. Lindley's book is an important addition to the literature on international law. The work is in four parts dealing respectively with : (1) the territory to be acquired ; (2) the " acquiring Sovereign " (i.e. the question of who may acquire territorial sovereignty — chartered companies, states, etc.) ; (3) methods of acquisition and related matters ; (4) the exercise of the sovereignty. In this last part the author considers the rights and duties which attach to a sovereign state in respect of backward territory and how they affect the natives, other

states and their subjects. Two chapters of special interest are devoted to the welfare and advancement of the natives and the doctrine of trusteeship, and the slave trade, slavery and conditions of labour.

Following a short historical survey leading up to the adoption by the Sixth Assembly of the League of Nations in September 1925 of a Draft Slavery Convention dealing *inter alia* with the slave trade, Mr. Lindley comes to the conclusion that the slave trade is prohibited by international law not only in respect of Africa, but universally. It appears to him possible to go even further and to say that any State that claims to live up to the measure of its duties as a full member of the international family should take every possible step to hinder and prevent the trade wherever encountered.

He points out that, in respect of its prohibition by international law, slavery does not stand in the same position as the slave trade. The problem of the abolition of slavery is complicated by the fact that, in addition to slavery as usually understood, there exist many forms of domestic slavery and serfdom, of debt slavery and peonage. The conclusions of the Temporary Slavery Commission of the League of Nations regarding the position of slavery under municipal laws are quoted. Attention is drawn to the fact that the international abolition of slavery has not formed the subject of such sweeping engagements as has that of the slave trade. The relevant undertaking in the League of Nations Draft Convention is referred to, and the author comes to the conclusion that it does not appear to be justifiable to lay down as a general proposition that slavery in newly-acquired territory is contrary to international law. Slavery, however, he adds, is recognised to be legal only as an evanescent native institution.

The remainder of this chapter is devoted to an account of conditions of labour which in their practical effects are indistinguishable from, or may result in, slavery. Among these compulsory labour for private purposes and compulsory labour for public purposes are considered in some detail. Arguing from the internationally accepted prohibition of the holding of slaves by non-natives and the extension of slave-holding in any form, the author concludes that "it appears necessarily to follow that conditions which, in their practical effects, are indistinguishable from, or may result in, slavery, should not be set up in another guise: and this rule requires, in the first place, that any labour imposed upon the natives by the Government shall be for public purposes only, and shall be capable of performance without undue hardship."

Loewenfeld-Russ, Dr. Hans. *Die Regelung der Volksernährung im Kriege.* Economic and Social History of the World War (Austrian and Hungarian Series). Publications of the Carnegie Endowment for International Peace. Division of Economics and History. Vienna, Hölder-Pichler-Tempsky; New Haven, U.S.A., Yale University Press, 1926. xxvi + 403 pp.

Detailed study on food control and agriculture in Austria during the war. The final chapter deals with conditions at the time of the collapse and analyses the effect of the war on agricultural and industrial food production and on consumption.

Martin, Kingsley. *The British Public and the General Strike.* London, Hogarth Press, 1926. 128 pp. 3s. 6d.

The author's intention, he states, was not to write a history of the general strike but to discuss what issues were really involved and to offer "some suggestions as to its significance in the mental history of the nation".

Mayhew, Arthur. *The Education of India. A Study of British Educational Policy in India, 1835-1920, and of its Bearing on National Life and Problems in India to-day.* London, Faber and Gwyer, 1926. xii + 306 pp. 10s. 6d.

A definite period of responsibility in the history of British education in India was closed in 1920 when the educational future of India was entrusted, under the Reforms Act, to provincial ministers responsible to representative legislative councils. This book is a survey of this period (1835-1920) as a whole. The author does not confine himself to a mere summary of the technical details of educational policy and method, but examines the bearing of education upon Indian national life and progress.

A chapter is devoted to a discussion of the relation between education and

material progress. The limitations of educational responsibility for economic salvation, the situation created by India's industrialisation, coupled with her poverty and the social obstacles to economic progress, the need for organisation for the production of wealth, general and vocational education in relation to this need, the beginnings of an apprentice system and of factory schools, the inadequate supply of skilled labour, its reasons and remedies, and the more satisfactory results obtained in respect of higher-grade training are among the more important subjects dealt with.

The author's main conclusions may be briefly summarised as follows:

(1) British education has done far less for Indian culture than for the material and political progress of the country;

(2) Emotional reaction against foreign culture affords no soil for indigenous growth;

(3) Indian personality and life as a whole will not intimately be affected by any education which is not animated by religion;

(4) Higher education in India depends for warmth and colour, vitality and response to communal aspirations, on the measure of its freedom from the control and direction of any form of government, whether Indian or alien;

(5) At no previous stage has Indian education needed more sorely Western sympathy, support and guidance than at present.

A list of books, reports and documents consulted by the author in the preparation of this book is given. A detailed index facilitates reference.

Mears, Eliot Grinnell and Tobriner, Mathew O. *Principles and Practices of Co-operative Marketing.* Boston, New York, Chicago, London, Ginn and Co., 1926. x + 580 pp.

This book is described in the preface as an interpretation of the significant problems of agricultural co-operation, "with prime emphasis on co-operative enterprise in the light of accepted knowledge derived from business organisation and administration." It aims at making clear chiefly to farmers, but also to business interests, labour interests, and the general public what are the aims and fundamentals of agricultural co-operation, the methods of organising co-operative marketing associations of different types, the principles of business practices (assembling, grading, storing, pooling, financing, price making, marketing, advertising, etc.) and the characteristic features of co-operative marketing in the United States and in other countries.

The volume includes a bibliography and some appendices (tabulations based on the replies to questionnaires sent to leading American and Canadian co-operative societies, statistics, suggested by-laws, and the text of the Capper-Volstead Act).

Meeker, Dr. Royal. *A Study of Costs and Standards of Living of Minneapolis Teachers in Relation to their Salaries.* Minneapolis, Minnesota, Central Committee of Teachers' Associations, 1926. 39 pp.

The object of this investigation, which was undertaken at the request of the teachers themselves, was to provide exact knowledge concerning the relation of salaries to the cost of living. Information was obtained by means of questionnaires, 649 teachers supplying data adequate for compilation. The results are tabulated by salary classes; separate tables are also given for male and female teachers without dependants and for those with dependants. Expenditure on the most important groups of articles is indicated. The study includes a discussion of the adequacy of the salaries. Standard budgets are suggested as a basis on which adequate salaries may be computed for unmarried men and women teachers and for teachers maintaining a standard family of five.

Moulton, Harold G. and Pasvolsky. *World War Debt Settlements.* The Institute of Economics. Investigations in International Economic Reconstruction. New York, The Macmillan Co., 1926. XIII + 448 pp.

Mousset, Albert. *Le Royaume Serbe-Croate-Slovène. Son organisation, sa vie politique et ses institutions.* Preface by Albert THOMAS. Twelfth edition. Paris, Editions Bossard, 1926. 270 pp., illustr. 24 frs.

Revised and enlarged edition of a work on the Kingdom of the Serbs, Croats

and Slovenes, first published in 1921. The part relating to economic questions, which occupied half the book in previous editions, will be issued in a separate volume now in the press. The author deals here with the constitution and laws of the country, home politics, religions, foreign policy, the press, public education, the fine arts and the drama. The book contains forty-four illustrations.

National Industrial Conference Board. *The Agricultural Problem in the United States.* New York, 1926. XIII + 157.

National "Safety First" Association. *Proceedings of the Public Safety Congress held in London 26-27 October, 1926.* (*With Index*). London, 1926. 50 pp. 2s. 6d.

National Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Children. *A Year's Work. Annual Report for 1925-6, adopted by the Council and Corporation, 27 May 1926.* London. 47 pp.

Odborové sdruzeni ceskoslovenské. *Zprava Odborového sdruzeni ceskoslovenského k VIII. sjezdu vsecdborovému za léta 1921-1925.* Prague, 1926. 252 pp., 12 tables and diagrams. 15 koruny.

Report on the activities of the Czechoslovak Federation of Trade Unions for the years 1921-1925, by the general secretary, Mr. Rodolphe TAYERLE. The report is in three parts. The first describes the economic condition of the country during the period reviewed and the action taken by the Federation to combat unemployment and the high cost of living, and in connection with housing (protection of tenants), taxation, agrarian reform, chambers of labour, co-operation, and improvement in the rate of wages of its members. The first part also contains a description of the working of employers' associations in Czechoslovakia. The second part deals with the social aspect of the Federation's activities, in particular with the part played by the Federation in the elaboration of international labour legislation and in connection with the International Labour Conference. The texts of the Draft Conventions and Recommendations adopted by the Conference are given in Czech. The third part deals with specific trade union activities.

Oldenberg, Dr. J. *Handbuch für das ländliche Fortbildungsschulwesen in Preussen.* Berlin, Deutsche Landbuchhandlung, 1926. XI + 314 + 206 pp.

Oppenheimer, Franz. *System der Soziologie. Autoren- und Sachregister zu Band 1-3.* Bearbeitet von Bertha SPINDLER-GYSIN. Jena, G. Fischer, 1927. 303 pp.

Index to volumes 1-3 of Professor Oppenheimer's work, to which reference was made in the August 1925 and September 1926 issues of the *International Labour Review.*

Orne, Anders. *Co-operative Ideals and Problems.* Translated by John DOWNIE. Manchester, Co-operative Union, 1926. XI + 143 pp.

This book, originally published in Swedish, was analysed in the *International Labour Review*, Vol. X, No. 4, October 1924, p. 723.

Pro Familia. Un plaidoyer en faveur des allocations familiales. Reprinted from the *Journal des Associations patronales*, No. 1-2, 9 January 1926. Zurich. 7 pp.

This pamphlet, after examining the main problems connected with the payment of family allowances, expresses the view that this important social question should be considered by Swiss employers with a view to the possible introduction of the system in Switzerland.

Rivain, Jean. *Un programme de restauration sociale. La Tour du Pin précurseur.* Preface by Léon BÉRARD. Etudes sociales et politiques. Paris, Société d'éditions "Le Livre", 1926. 218 pp. 10 frs.

"Social justice, according to La Tour du Pin," writes Mr. Léon Bérard in the preface to this book, "has nothing in common with equitable distribution, which is more or less subordinated in our generally accepted views to the main idea and supreme law of equality. Social justice, in his opinion, implies a social and political order in which man's debt to society is strictly recognised and discharged... Social justice is attained when a part of the product of the labour of one genera-

tion is allocated to the work and the well-being of the succeeding generation." This doctrine, which has more than one feature in common with the positive policy and social constitution of August Comte, is shrewdly analysed by Mr. Rivain. His study on La Tour du Pin is followed by three essays on social questions which have already been published.

Savez Grafickih Radnika-ca Jugoslavije. *Izvestaj o Radu Savza Grafickih Radnika Jugoslovije 1924-1926.* Zagreb, 1926. 88 pp.

Report on the activities of the Jugoslav Printers' Federation for the period 1924-1926.

Schweizerische Vereinigung für Innenkolonisation u. industrielle Landwirtschaft. (a) *Geschäftsbericht für 1924.* Publication No. 24, 1925. 12 pp., illustr. and maps. (b) *Die Kolonisation des Furttales.* By Dr. Hans Bernhard. Publication No. 25, 1925. 66 pp., illustr. and plans. (c) *Die Kolonisation der Linthebene.* By Dr. Hans Bernhard. Publication No. 27, 1925. 100 pp., maps. (d) *Geschäftsbericht für 1925.* Publication No. 28, 1926. 18 pp. Berne-Bümpliz, Benteli.

Attention may be drawn to the series of publications issued by the Swiss Association for Home Settlement and Industrial Agriculture. Separate reports on settlement projects, with detailed maps, are issued from time to time and form together a valuable collection of practical information on settlement work in Switzerland. The general situation, as set forth in the publications of the Association, is envisaged as one of overpopulation, or, perhaps more definitely, as that of over-concentration of population. Particularly interesting are the efforts made to decentralise the valleys, i.e. to resettle some of the higher parts of the mountains which there is a tendency to abandon for the more convenient life of the lower altitudes. The membership of the Association is a mixed one; some public bodies, including the Swiss Federation, and a number of commercial and industrial houses are represented; a number of individuals are also included. The policy of the Association is to direct public opinion in support of Federal and Cantonal grants for settlement purposes.

Scottish Trade Union Congress. *Twenty-ninth Annual Report of the Scottish Trade Union Congress held at Inverness, 21-24 April 1926.* Glasgow, 1926. 155 pp. 6d.

Soddy, Frederick. *Wealth, Virtual Wealth and Debt.* London, Allen and Unwin, 1926. 320 pp. 10s.

In this book a scientist of international reputation attempts to deal with the question of over-production and under consumption by reasoning based on the physical laws of conservation. Three main arguments are advanced. The first is that orthodox economics are based on a fundamental confusion between wealth and debt. The second is that the banks in creating credit have usurped the prerogative of the Crown and that the right of issue and withdrawal of money should be restored to the nation. The third is that the value of money should not depend upon the quantity of a single commodity, namely, gold, but should be based on the index number of the general price level and the issue of money should be regulated so as to maintain this index number constant.

Professor Soddy puts forward a number of proposals by which the necessary changes might, in his opinion, be expeditiously brought about in Great Britain, and sketches briefly some of the results which might be expected to follow.

Soria Hernandez, Arturo. *The Problem of the Land in Spain in relation to Town and Country Planning.* Report presented to the Conference of the International Federation for Town and Country Planning and for Garden Cities. Vienna, September 1926. Madrid, 1926. 60 pp.

The text of this report is given in English and in Spanish.

The China Year Book 1926-7. Edited by H. G. W. Woodhead, C.B.E. Tientsin, The Tientsin Press; Chicago, University of Chicago Press. Agents for Great Britain and Europe: Simpkin, Marshall, Hamilton, Kent and Co., London. xxix + 134 pp., map.

Veillard, Maurice. *Comment prévenir l'indigence des familles nombreuses?*

Reprinted from *Der Armenpfleger*. Lausanne, Secrétariat romand d'hygiène sociale et morale. 7 pp.

This small pamphlet is a plea in favour of the institution of family allowances in Switzerland.

Verband der Gemeinde- und Staatsarbeiter. *30 Jahre Ausgaben und Leistungen 1896-1926.* Berlin. 31 pp., coloured plates.

Describes the activities of the German Union of State and Municipal Workers during the period 1896-1926.

Zentralverband der Hotel-, Restaurant- und Café-Angestellten. *Protokoll über die Verhandlungen des 3. (12) Verbandstages abgehalten vom 12. bis 15. Oktober 1926 in Frankfurt am Main.* Berlin, 1926. 159 pp. 1 mark.

Proceedings of the Congress of the German Federation of Hotel and Restaurant Workers held at Frankfort-on-the-Main, 12-15 October 1926.

Zentralverband der Schuhmacher. *Protokoll über die Verhandlungen des 21. ordentlichen Verbandstages abgehalten vom 21. bis 25. Juni 1926 zu Frankfurt a. M.* Nuremburg, 1926. 270 pp.

Proceedings of the twenty-first Congress of the German Shoemakers' Federation held at Frankfort-on-the-Main, 21-25 June 1926.

OTHER PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED BY THE OFFICE

Camera di Commercio Italo-Oriental Beri. *Il commercio oleario con i paesi dell' oriente. Relazione all' VIII° Congresso internazionale di Olivicoltura, Roma, 14-21 Novembre 1926.* Beri, Società editrice Tipografica, 1926. 13 pp.

Dupin, Gustave (" Ermenonville "). *Poincare et ses " Souvenirs politiques ". Etude critique et psychologique.* Paris, Librairie du Travail. 32 pp. 2 frs.

Hardy, Charles O. *Tax-exempt Securities and the Surtax.* The Institute of Economics Investigations in Finance. New York, The Macmillan Company, 1926. xx + 216 pp.

Larreguy de Civrieux, Marc de. *La muse du sang. Poèmes et légendes.* Preface by Romain Rolland. Paris, Librairie du Travail, 1926. 58 pp. 3 frs.

Rostovtyeff, M. *The Social and Economic History of the Roman Empire.* Oxford, Clarendon Press, 1926. xxv + 695 pp.

Vinas Mey, Carmelo. *El Derecho Obrero en la Colonización Española.* Reprinted from *Humanidas*, Vol. VIII, pp. 49-102. Buenos Aires, " Coni ", 1926. 56 pp.

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The Labour Movement in China[1]

by

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A recent number of the Review *contained an article on labour conditions in Chinese industry*[2]*, which is now followed by a further article on a closely related subject, the Chinese labour movement. It will be seen that the two articles, while quite independent, are in reality complementary, each helping to complete the picture given by the other. The article below gives a historical survey of the labour movement in China in recent years, its methods and aims, with an account of the movement for protective labour legislation in China and of the Regulations promulgated or proposed concerning the legal position of trade unions, as seen by a Chinese economist who combines acquaintance with Western conditions and points of view with first-hand observation of recent events and conditions in his own country. Some months have necessarily elapsed since it was written, and in the interval events in China have been moving rapidly. In particular, as concerns the subject here discussed, trade unionism has sprung up on a very large scale under the auspices of the Kuomintang, especially in the districts and provinces conquered by its armies. In Changsha, for instance, 500 unions with a membership of more than 300,000 have already been constituted. There has been a similar movement in Hankow, though on a smaller scale, and in other districts as well. But this does not in any way affect the value of the bulk of the article.*

THE rise of the labour movement in China may be indicated by three social trends : the growth of class consciousness, the creation of labour organisations, and united efforts for economic and social improvement of the proletariat. The awakening of labour has in some ways aroused class feeling between capital and labour; the attempts at organising the workers along the lines of

[1] The writer is indebted to Professor J. B. Tayler of Yenching University, Peking, for valuable suggestions and criticisms during the preparation of this article.

[2] *International Labour Review*, Vol. XV, No. 1, January 1927, pp. 24-50 : " Some Aspects of the Labour Problem in China ", by P. Henry.

modern trade unionism have in a measure given them a superior weapon for collective bargaining; and by means of united efforts all parties interested in social welfare, such as the government, social service organisations, and the labour unions, are paying some attention to the well-being of the workers. The movement is yet young, but has in it the possibility of healthy growth under the intelligent guidance of labour leaders and with the sympathetic co-operation of social thinkers.

The Awakening of Labour

Among the social forces which have materially aided the cause of labour should be mentioned the student movement, the literary renaissance, and the emancipation of women. These events have generally caused the disintegration of the antiquated traditional customs of China, compelled men to search for suitable modes of life, and created new social standards. In fact, prior to 1918 or 1919, most manual workers unquestioningly submitted to the traditional social hierarchy graded according to the rank and wealth of the old society, and rarely did they raise a voice of protest against the existing social order. But after Chinese students began to lecture to the masses on principles of citizenship and the equality of men, the workers gradually came to realise that they had obvious rights and privileges in society, which slowly became the basis of united demands. Then, too, the literary renaissance has popularised the written language to a certain extent, so that forward-looking workmen can acquire the fundamentals of popular education by attending evening schools and taking lessons in simplified Chinese. Some of them are able to read newspapers printed in the vernacular, and some are in a position to discuss current topics with some intelligence. To some of them the language is no longer a hindrance to the acquisition of knowledge. This idea of the educational improvement of the workers has also met with the sympathetic support of liberal employers, and a number of industrial, commercial, and cultural institutions now provide facilities for educating their employees. The third social force hastening class consciousness is the emancipation of women. At the beginning of the Republican regime, militant women with a modern education were engaged in struggling for the political suffrage and civic equality with men. In recent years some leaders of their sex have demanded the privilege and opportunity of gainful

employment in industries, trades, and commercial establishments. Thus the Canton-Kowloon Railway employs women as ticket collectors, certain banks in Shanghai have women cashiers, certain department stores in Peking and Shanghai employ saleswomen. The entry of women into industry has certainly liberalised the Chinese conception of morality, modified social conventions, widened the scope of women's activities, and paved the way for their economic independence.

These, then, seem to be the principal causes of the growing group consciousness among the workpeople. The workers feel themselves to be a class, distinct from other social groups in the population. Because they realise that their services are indispensable to the social well-being of all classes, they now demand that society recognise their social rights.

Labour Organisations

From the foregoing description it is evident that the class feeling of the workers is now growing. Their consciousness is sometimes expressed in serious attempts to organise themselves along the lines of modern trade unionism. The guild system characteristic of the old industrial life is either slowly losing its grip on the working population or gradually being modified to suit the new social conditions. Only in trades essentially unaffected by the new mode of life do the guilds still hold their own. To-day the commonest type of labour organisation is the craft union whose members are recruited from the same trade. This idea is the most readily accepted by the Chinese workers, for in the old days the members of the craft guild also included the masters and journeymen of the same craft. In some industries, however, the tendency is toward the industrial union, as having a broader basis of organisation ; in addition, Chinese workers find it especially advantageous in the case of a strike, for the craft line is then broken down and workers in the same industry may be persuaded to join the strike. The most unpopular type of labour organisation to-day is probably the general labour union, i.e. an organisation of workers regardless of industry, trade, or skill. This unpopularity is partly due to the fact that many unskilled workers are illiterate and have not realised the practical benefit of organisation, and partly to difficulties of organising some kinds of labour, particularly seasonal and casual labour.

With regard to the general principles upon which the workers are now organised, three typical tendencies may be mentioned.

One group of labour leaders contends that Chinese labour to-day is not yet able to fight its cause alone and must secure protection from a political party. The party platform should include provisions on social welfare and reform, emphasising the need for improvement of the living conditions of the proletariat. The Kuomintang[1] manifestly takes this stand. Its Central Executive Committee has a special division on labour which is charged with the duty of giving counsel and advice to workers on matters affecting their interests. Recently numerous labour unions have sprung up in Canton, causing great confusion in industry. There has been no central organisation which could command the confidence and respect of all the unions in the city for settling disputes or strikes. Although several efforts have been made to organise the important unions into a general federation of labour, no substantial result has been obtained. The Kuomintang has undertaken the task of consolidating the principal unions by the creation of the Association of Workers' Delegates. This Association was formed by asking each trade or industry to elect its representative to organise a Central Executive Committee which should have authority to control the trades and industries by which it had been elected. Four groups of industrial workers were represented : (1) the transport workers, including those from the Yueh-Han Railway and the Canton-Kowloon Railway, seamen, telephone and telegraph operators, machinists on tug boats, boatmen, loading and unloading coolies, chauffeurs, rickshaw pullers ; (2) factory workers, including workers in the municipal power company, arsenals, oil mills, rice mills, construction and building companies, foundries, and the textile trades ; (3) handicraft workers, including tailors, carpenters, plumbers and tilers, carvers, ivory ball workers, varnish men, blacksmiths, gold and silver smiths ; (4) miscellaneous workers, including unskilled workmen, casual labourers, and odd jobbers. The four general groups of workers elected their representatives to form the Central Executive Committee, which appointed five subcommittees on education, publication, co-operation, political education, and military training respectively. In addition there were four subcommittees, each looking after the interests of one of the groups (transport workers, factory workers, handicraft workers,

[1] The Kuomintang is the political party founded by the late Dr. Sun Yat Sen. It is in power in the Southern Provinces.

and miscellaneous workers). As an example of the importance of the Association's activities those of 1924 may be mentioned. At its general meeting in May resolutions were passed in favour of the following: (*a*) the consolidation and reorganisation of the employees of the Canton Telegraph Office and Telephone Company, the seamen's unions, and the transport workers; (*b*) the prohibition of night work by apprentices; (*c*) the standardisation of wages in each trade and the elimination of unfair competition for employment by workers in the same trade; (*d*) the organisation of employment agencies; (*e*) workers' education; (*f*) the organisation of a committee on co-operation; (*g*) the strike fund. Recently, because of political changes and social unrest in Canton, part of this programme has been held in abeyance. Promising beginnings have however been made along some lines. Thus the subcommittee on military training really helped to organise the labour corps, which was a serious attempt to train the workers for self-protection in emergency as well as a means of defence for the city. Experiments have been made in consumers' co-operation, with partial success.

The second general tendency in labour organisation is represented by the left wing of the labour movement. The leaders of this group argue that the affiliation of labour with politics is not always helpful to the cause of labour, as party platforms are sometimes obliged to include compromises in order to pacify the conflicting elements in the party; they therefore wish to be more drastic and more uncompromising than a political party can be. They generally favour the strike, sabotage, direct action, and revolutionary tactics as weapons in the struggle between capital and labour. The programme of this group is frankly communistic. They contend that the workers are deprived of rights and privileges in society which cannot be restored to them through parliamentary action or evolutionary social reforms, but must be sought through social revolution. Part of their propaganda is being carried on in close relation to the theory and practice of Bolshevism. Some labour organisations in Hongkong, Canton, Changsha, and Shanghai share the characteristics of this group. The labour union of the Pin-hsiang mines at An-Yuen, Hunan province, may be taken as an illustration. This union, which was organised principally to strengthen the power of collective bargaining on the part of the workers, adopts an intransigent attitude towards the management and often resorts to strikes for settling labour disputes. At one time the miners virtually imposed their labour policy on the company and adopted certain features of syndicalism. They decided

to work four or five hours a day instead of the normal long hours common to the mine workers in the country. As a result the daily output of coal was greatly reduced and the supply was far from sufficient to meet the needs of factories in Hankow and the vicinity. Communistic tendencies are also found in certain district unions of the Peking-Hankow Railway, as in the manifesto of these unions it is clearly stated that " the class war is inevitable and the most effective weapon for securing justice for the workers is direct action ". Some members of the left wing of the Kuomintang are also in favour of this attitude and have been helping some labour men to propagate this idea. But at the fourth conference of the Central Executive Committee, held on 23 November 1925, it was decided to expel the Communists from the Kuomintang on the following grounds :

(1) That the Communists have been utilising the party to strengthen their influence as well as that of Soviet Russia in China ; (2) that while the Communists wish to be loyal to their ideals the Kuomintang has principles of its own, and these two are not always harmonious, although both the Communists and the Kuomintang oppose imperialism and oppression ; (3) that Russia and China have differences in national history and social life and therefore communistic practices might not suit the Chinese people.

For these reasons it was felt that it would be beneficial to both sides to expel the Communists from the Kuomintang. Evidently this will mark an appreciable change of attitude of the party toward Communism on the one hand and its support of radical labour leaders on the other[1].

The third general tendency in labour organisation is the belief that labour must fight its cause alone and work out its own salvation. Labour will not ask for help from politicians or radicals, but it will carry out its programme by means of men experienced in social service, or by those who are truly interested in the welfare of the proletariat. The Machinists' Union of Hongkong may be cited as an example of this tendency. Its members now number about 60,000, including many Chinese in the islands of the Malay peninsula, the Dutch East Indies and the Philippines. These men, alarmed by the political unrest in their mother country, want their union to be entirely free from political entanglements. To their way of thinking, the advancement of the cause of labour must primarily depend upon the enlightened workers. Labour leaders

[1] More recently the Kuomintang leaders have come to a working arrangement with the Communists.

of this frame of mind are still in the minority, but popular sentiment is steadily growing in their favour. This is mainly because of the bitter experience labour has recently undergone in relying upon outsiders to champion its cause. Occasionally shrewd politicians or scheming radicals have taken advantage of the opportunity of furthering their personal ambitions. Thinking men in the labour world therefore wish to organise independent unions, chiefly under the leadership of men of experience in social work, which shall have the economic and social improvement of the workmen as their sole aim.

National Labour Conferences

The trade union movement of a really national character dates from the first National Labour Conference held at Canton from 1 to 6 May 1922, at which 162 delegates from 200 unions in 12 cities, representing about 400,000 workers, were present. The Conference passed a number of resolutions, including those in favour of an 8-hour day, mutual aid to strikers, a permanent national organisation of trade unions, and the organisation of unions on an industrial rather than a craft basis, and adopted as its general policy the promotion of the economic and industrial welfare of the workers, combined with abstention from political activity.

The second National Labour Conference was held at Canton from 1 to 7 May 1925. Some unions pointed out that the Conference was dominated by radicals ; the Federation of Labour Unions of Hupeh Province went so far as to denounce the prime movers of the Conference as having " sinister motives ", stating that it considered the Conference " unrepresentative of the Chinese proletariat as a whole ". Nevertheless it was the second attempt to call together labour elements in different parts of the country for some common action and interest. The Conference decided to create the General Labour Union of China in order to organise all the workers in the nation and to promote their general welfare. Membership was to be corporate rather than individual. Representatives of federations of labour unions became *ipso facto* members of the General Labour Union, while representatives of single unions might become members on the recommendation of the officers of the General Labour Union. The aims of the General Labour Union were to be : (*a*) to promote labour organisations in China ; (*b*) to direct and unify the labour movement : (*c*) to promote

friendship and education among the workers; (*d*) to formulate common aims and policies; (*e*) to arbitrate in labour disputes, especially between unions; and (*f*) to establish relations with international labour organisations. There was to be an executive committee of 25 members elected annually at the conference of the representatives of member unions. The decisions of the annual conference of the representatives and of the executive committee were to be binding on all member unions. Under the executive committee there were to be a secretariat, and a department each for organisation, publications, and finance. Other important resolutions of the Conference were in favour of: (*a*) the federation of labourers and farmers; (*b*) the federation of labourers and farmers with soldiers; (*c*) the promotion of workers' education; and (*d*) the consolidation of labour unions in Canton and Shanghai.

Reference may also be made to the proceedings of the third National Conference, held at Canton from 1 to 12 May 1926, at which 400 delegates, representing 1,240,000 organised workers belonging to 400 unions in 19 provinces, were present. Reports were presented and resolutions passed on the following subjects: organisation of the labour movement; reorganisation and working of trade unions; objects and programme of the economic struggle; strikes; the relations between workers and peasants; workers' education; young workers and the trade union movement; unemployment; co-operation; labour legislation; and the right of association and conditions of work.

The Movement for Labour Legislation

On the basis of information on labour conditions already published in English[1], which is, however, far from complete, certain general statements may be made to indicate social tendencies in present-day China.

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[1] Especially the following:

International Labour Review, Vol. VIII, No. 1, July 1923, pp. 1-20: "Labour and Industry in China", by J. B. Tayler and W. T. Zung; Vol. X, No. 6, Dec. 1924, pp. 1005-1028: "Labour Conditions and Labour Regulation in China"; Vol. XI, No. 5, May 1925, pp. 665-681: "The Recommendations of the Shanghai Child Labour Commission", by Dame Adelaide Anderson: Vol. XII, No. 5, Nov. 1925, pp. 668-676: "Labour Conditions in China".

Monthly Labour Review of the United States Bureau of Labour Statistics, Aug. 1921, pp. 3-15: "Wages and Hours of Labour in Five Chinese Cities"; Nov. 1924, pp. 36-49: "Labour Conditions in China"; Dec. 1921, pp. 142-149: "Working Women in China"; Aug. 1921, pp. 16-30: "Labour Unrest in China"; Dec. 1920, pp. 207-212: "The Labour Situation in China": all by Dr. Ta Chen.

In the first place, money wages in recent years have shown an upward trend for the following main reasons. (*a*) Since the European War prices of commodities have generally risen. For example, in 1916 the cost of 200 pounds of polished rice in Shanghai was \$7.78[1]; in 1923 it had increased to \$12.45; over the same period and in the same city, the price of potatoes rose from \$3.09 per picul[2] to \$3.40. This has increased the cost of living for the workers. (*b*) Realising the above situation, the workmen of the better organised trades have struck principally for economic reasons. Thus, between 1918 and 1925 there were in China 698 strikes; in 49 per cent. of these 1,273,606 working men were involved. (*c*) The depreciation of the copper currency has also had very serious results for the proletariat, as wages are customarily paid in copper coins. In Peking, for example, in August 1923, one dollar exchanged for 195 coppers, but a year later it exchanged for 229 coppers, while early in 1926 the rate touched 340. Under these conditions wages have also increased. But whether the increase is sufficient to meet the rising cost of living is yet an open question[3].

A second significant factor affecting labour conditions is the gradual decrease of the contract system in China. Up to very recently, foreign firms (and, to a lesser extent, Chinese firms), on account of unfamiliarity with the Chinese language and difficulties in knowing the habits and idiosyncracies of the Chinese, have relied mainly upon the contractor for labour. The foreign company paid the contractor who in turn paid his men. The management frequently used no payrolls and kept no records of its labour force. This practice has been found unsatisfactory for both employers and men. The workers suffered chiefly from the unfair practices of the contractor, including underpayment and inhumane treatment; the employers also considered it unsatisfactory, because the workers found it difficult to submit complaints to the company for redress and for the maintenance of just relations between the two parties, and the chasm between the management and the men

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[1] The Chinese silver dollar is equivalent to 1.175 ounces of (standard) silver at par; the exchange rate fluctuates with the gold value of silver. At the time of writing this article the Chinese dollar exchanged for 54 cents gold.

[2] 1 picul = $133^1/_3$ lbs. = 60.48 kg.

[3] Cf. *Proceedings of the American Sociological Society*, Vol. XIX, 1925, pp. 196-199: "Density of Population and Standard of Living in North China", by C. G. Dittmer; *Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science*, Nov. 1925, pp. 167-173: "Living Conditions in China", by Maude B. Warner; *Monthly Labour Review*, Dec. 1921, pp. 1-7: "Cost of Living in Japan and China since 1914", by Ta Chen.

was thus rendered unduly deep. Under this system labour turnover was usually high. To-day, although the practice still exists to a considerable extent, it is slowly decreasing in importance, and this among both foreign and Chinese employers.

Thirdly, there is the regrettable fact that no substantial progress is now being made either in the reduction of hours of labour or in the improvement of working conditions. With the exception of a few modernised factories in commercial and industrial centres, the workers usually work long hours and have no rest on Sunday. The surroundings of the place of employment are generally unhygienic, ventilation is poor, working tools are inadequate, and sanitary equipment is frequently lacking. Social changes in China are manifestly slow, and rapid progress can hardly be expected in the near future in the improvement of working conditions, especially in the interior of the country.

Although working conditions are generally unsatisfactory, yet at the same time some valuable experiments along the lines of industrial welfare are being carried on. These are usually found among the larger undertakings and the relatively more enlightened employers, who are impelled by humanitarian motives to take adequate care of the workers, and whose appreciation of modern welfare work encourages them to modify the antiquated systems of relief and charity practised by the guilds.

In recent years the desire for protecting the workers' health and promoting their safety has found another channel of expression, namely, the movement for protective labour laws. In this movement various social forces have joined hands. Not only do the labour unions press for labour legislation, but national and provincial government departments and commercial, educational, and social welfare institutions are interested in it. Although no substantial progress has been made in the amount of legislation already in operation, yet public opinion is increasingly in favour of governmental action.

It may be well to outline recent attempts at enacting labour laws in China. At the annual meeting in 1919 of the China Continuation Committee attention was drawn to the existence of unsatisfactory labour conditions. Thereafter the Christian Church took a sympathetic interest in the matter, and appointed a Commission on " the Relation of the Church to China's Economic and Industrial Problems ". In May 1922, when the National Christian Conference met, three resolutions relating to labour were passed in the hope of promoting conformity with the standard set up by the First

Session of the International Labour Conference held in Washington in October 1919. These resolutions advocated (1) the prohibition of the employment of children under 12 years of age, (2) one day of rest in seven, and (3) the safeguarding of the health of the workers by limitation of working hours, improvement of sanitary conditions, and installation of safety devices. In the same year a joint committee of women's clubs of British, American, Japanese, and Chinese nationalities in Shanghai publicly declared their opposition to the employment of very young children in factories.

In addition, in some better organised trades and industries, the workers effectively expressed their discontent about working conditions. When the shipping strike in Hongkong, which lasted from 13 January to 5 March 1922, ended in a complete victory for the seamen, the Canton Government became aware of the growing importance of the labour organisations and shortly afterwards repealed section 224 of chapter XVI of the Provisional Criminal Code, thus legalising strikes and removing unnecessary shackles from the workers.

Throughout the rank and file of labour heated discussions on labour matters have also been going on. On 4 September 1922 the labour unions of Wuhan, in the province of Hupeh, sent a petition to the National Parliament in Peking setting forth nineteen demands, which were afterwards endorsed by the labour unions throughout the nation. Although under existing conditions some demands were too idealistic for immediate realisation, labour's earnest desire for protection is obvious. The workers' demands include freedom to hold meetings and to declare strikes, an 8-hour day and a 42-hour week, government regulation of farm products, abolition of usury and high rent in rural communities, prohibition of night work of women and children in factories, a minimum wage law, the establishment of wage adjustment boards, state insurance, and state education.

In February 1923, when the Peking-Hankow Railway Union declared a strike which was suppressed by the government troops, the Union pointed out that the right to organise and hold meetings was stipulated in the Provisional Constitution of the Republic and was therefore inviolable. The strike was investigated by members of the House of Representatives, and debated at a joint session of the House and the Senate, attended by over one hundred members. Resolutions were passed and presented to the President urging the recognition of the right to organise labour unions. On 22 February 1923 a Presidential Mandate was issued ordering that labour

laws should be drafted by the proper ministries and submitted to Parliament for consideration. The President's order was strictly obeyed and speedy work was done. On 29 March the Ministry of Agriculture and Commerce promulgated Provisional Factory Regulations[1] consisting of 28 sections. The Bill to convert these Regulations into an Act was not passed by Parliament, but the Regulations constitute the first Ministerial Order to lay down standards for the protection of factory labour. They contain provisions dealing with the following : minimum age of admission to employment, limitation of hours of labour, prohibition of night work for young persons, and of certain kinds of work for women and children, compulsory education, and government inspection of factories. In certain respects the Regulations differ both from an Ordinance on the industrial employment of children which has been in operation in Hongkong since 1 January 1923, and also from the recommendations[2] of the Child Labour Commission contained in the Report submitted to the Shanghai Municipal Council on 9 July 1924. But the main difficulties in the way of the effective operation of the Ministry's Factory Regulations seem to consist in two conditions : (1) they apply only to factories which usually employ not less than 100 workers, or are dangerous or unhealthy, so that workshops and industrial establishments of smaller size which are not dangerous or unhealthy, but whose unsatisfactory labour conditions demand regulation, are excluded from their sphere ; (2) no penalties are provided for violation of the Regulations, and no adequate system of inspection exists, so that they cannot effectively be enforced.

A comparative statement of the main provisions of the Provisional Factory Regulations (clauses affecting women and children), the Hongkong Ordinance, and the recommendations of the Shanghai Labour Commission is shown on the opposite page[3].

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[1] INTERNATIONAL LABOUR OFFICE : *Legislative Series*, 1923, Chin. 1. Cf. *International Labour Review*, Vol. X, No. 6, Dec. 1924, pp. 1007 *et seq.*

[2] *Ibid.*, pp. 1023-1024.

[3] Adapted from *Monthly Labour Review*, Nov. 1924, pp. 40-41.

COMPARISON OF PROVISIONAL FACTORY REGULATIONS, HONGKONG ORDINANCE, AND SHANGHAI RECOMMENDATIONS CONCERNING CHILD LABOUR

Item	Provisional Factory Regulations	Hongkong Ordinance	Recommandations of Shanghai Commission
Minimum age	Boys, 10 years; Girls, 12 years	10 years; but no child under 12 to carry coal, building material, or debris	10 years, rising to 12 within four years from promulgation of regulations
Proof of age	No provision	Child assumed to be under age if so appears to the judge	Some measure for proof should be adopted
Hours of labour	8[1], exclusive of breaks	9, but no child to work more than 5 hours continuously	Children under 14: maximum of 12, including rest of 1 hour
Night work	None between 8 p.m. and 4 a.m.	None between 7 p.m. and 7 a.m.	Night work permitted now; to be reconsidered after 4 years
Rest days	Not less than 3[2] full days per month	1 day in 7	1 day in 14
Prohibition of certain work	Women and young persons: cleaning, greasing, inspecting and repairing about machinery in motion, minding winches and cranes, etc. Young persons: preparing poisonous, noxious, or explosive substances, or in unhealthy or dusty places	Carrying weight exceeding 40 catties[3] and at dangerous trades, i.e. boiler chipping, fireworks, and glass manufacture	Children under 14: work at dangerous unguarded machines, hazardous places, or work likely to injure body or health
Compulsory education	At employer's expense	No provision	Outside Commission's power, but Commission favours it
Record keeping	No provision	Employer to keep current record of children employed	No provision
Inspection and penalties	Inspection, but no provision for penalties	Inspection; fine or imprisonment for violation	Inspection and penalties

[1] Adults, 10 hours exclusive of breaks.
[2] Adults, at least 2 days per month.
[3] 1 catty = about $1^1/_3$ lb.

About the time when the Provisional Factory Regulations were promulgated, the Ministry of Agriculture and Commerce also drew up a Trade Union Bill of 15 sections and submitted it to Parliament for consideration. The main provisions were as follows:

(1) Recognition of the right of association of workers engaged in the same kind of employment;

(2) Restriction of the unions to (*a*) mutual help among members, (*b*) improvement of conditions of employment, (*c*) investigation of labour conditions, (*d*) making proposals to the government with respect to labour legislation, and (*e*) answering enquiries made by the administrative authorities;

(3) Stipulation that when a trade union passes a resolution or carries one into effect which will produce any of the following results, the appropriate administrative authorities may order its dissolution: (*a*) disturbing the form of government, (*b*) disturbing the public peace, (*c*) endangering the life of any of the public, (*d*) obstructing communications or inflicting injury on the nation or society.

But before these regulations were passed by Parliament, the *coup d'état* of 13 June 1923 took place in Peking, resulting in the deposition of President Li Yuanhung and the dissolution of Parliament, and the agitation for national legislation on trade unions temporarily subsided. In November 1924 Dr. Sun Yat Sen promulgated trade union Regulations to cope with the situation in Kwangtung Province. The preamble states that the main aims of the Regulations are: (1) to recognise the status of labour organisations; (2) to grant them more rights and greater freedom; and (3) to remove obstacles that may hinder the organisation and progress of the labour movement. The main principles of the Regulations may be summarised as follows:

(1) Recognition that trade unions and employers' associations are on an equal footing;

(2) Recognition that trade unions shall have freedom of speech, of the press, and of educational work;

(3) Recognition that trade unions shall have the right to conclude collective agreements with the employers' organisations;

(4) Recognition that in case of dispute a union shall have the right to ask the employers to set up a joint arbitration committee, and the right to apply to the appropriate administrative authorities to open an enquiry or institute arbitration proceedings;

(5) Recognition that unions have the right to declare strikes;

(6) Recognition that trade unions shall have the right to

participate with employers in regulating hours of labour, working conditions, and factory hygiene ;

(7) Recognition of the principle that in disputes in a private industry (not a public utility) the administrative authorities shall only investigate or arbitrate but shall not enforce their decisions by compulsion, in order to encourage the initiative of the trade union concerned ;

(8) Guarantees to trade unions for the security of property belonging to them ;

(9) Provision that the prohibition of meeting and of association contained in the Criminal Code and Police Regulations are not applicable to trade unions ;

(10) Encouragement of the principle of organisation of trade unions by industry, with the possibility, in view of the importance of handicrafts among Chinese industries, of organisation also by craft.

Toward the close of 1924 and throughout 1925, a period of active propaganda for labour legislation began anew. Strikes became more common and social unrest more widespread. Petitions to the government for equitable adjustments between capital and labour came from trade unions, commercial associations, and educational organisations. In view of recent labour troubles the Chinese Government evinced a strong desire to enact appropriate labour legislation to govern the situation. Furthermore, with the approach of the Seventh Session of the International Labour Conference, China contemplated speeding up work on social reforms so as to present a constructive programme at the Conference. A minor factor was the anxiety of a few political aspirants to have some sort of trade union law enacted which would enable them to be elected to the provisional Senate as representatives of legally recognised unions. When the incident of 30 May 1925 occurred in Shanghai, the cry for immediate legislation naturally became acute. Thus in a telegram of 10 July 1925 the Shanghai Chamber of Commerce stated that the episode of 30 May might be " partially due to the lack of trade union laws, for had there been such laws the Japanese employers might have been willing to comply with them. Besides, in recent years China's delegates to the International Labour Conference have not always been able to represent the wishes of the workers. " Under these circumstances the Ministry of Agriculture and Commerce drew up a new set of regulations embodying 14 chapters and 50 sections and including the following provisions :

(1) Trade unions may deal with the following questions: (*a*) placing of members and mutual aid; (*b*) improvement of working conditions; (*c*) investigation of and reports on working conditions; (*d*) members' savings and workers' insurance; (*e*) consumers' co-operation and co-operative housing enterprises for members; (*f*) requests for arbitration of disputes between capital and labour; (*g*) proposals concerning the interests of labour and supply of information to the administrative authorities; (*h*) factory hygiene and technical training for the workers.

(2) The promoters of a union must be 50 workers who (*a*) have been employed in the trade for three or more years, (*b*) are 30 years of age, and (*c*) can read and write simple Chinese.

(3) When a union acts in contravention of any existing law or regulation, so as to disturb the public peace or endanger the public welfare, or does not observe the orders of the competent administrative authorities, these authorities may report the case to the Ministry of Agriculture and Commerce, or other appropriate government department, with a view to the dissolution of the union.

Some of these regulations met with opposition from various organisations. Certain trade unions felt that their freedom of organisation was curtailed. Thus, in a telegram dated 10 July 1925, the General Labour Union of China raised the following objections:

(1) Organisation of unions on a craft rather than an industrial basis is undesirable;

(2) The conditions of age and education imposed on promoters are too rigorous;

(3) The provision that the funds of the union must be deposited in a state bank is anti-democratic.

The original draft of the regulations was later modified by the Ministry of Communications and the number of sections was finally reduced to 34. The main changes include the prohibition of strikes and lockouts in certain circumstances and the adoption of peaceful methods for the settlement of disputes between capital and labour. The Ministry of Communications also insisted upon the classification of industries into private and public, including in the latter category government undertakings such as arsenals, public utilities such as water supply and telephones, and means of communication and transport such as railways. The Ministry was also in favour of adopting different regulations for the trade unions in each of these four classes of industry.

Early in 1926, just before military hostilities broke out between

the Kuominchun and the Fengtien troops, another set of regulations modifying the last mentioned was drafted by the Ministry of Agriculture and Commerce. The significant provisions are as follows :

(1) Unions may be organised on either a craft or an industrial basis.

(2) A union may elect representatives to sit on a joint committee to settle disputes between capital and labour.

(3) The promoters of a union must be 30 adult workers who are at present employed in the trade.

(4) In case of a labour dispute the local authorities may, upon the request of the interested parties, hold an enquiry and act as conciliators. If necessary, the authorities may request both sides to appoint an equal number of experts to form an arbitration board, subject to the approval of the proper authorities. If a dispute arises in a public utility, the government department concerned must settle the dispute, or request the local authorities to arbitrate and report their decision to the controlling government department for approval. If both sides are dissatisfied with the decision and the settlement of the case is thus delayed, the local authorities may enforce the decision by compulsion ; in this case their action must be reported to the Ministry of Agriculture and Commerce and other appropriate government departments.

(5) Lockouts and strikes are prohibited while enquiry and conciliation proceedings are in progress.

(6) A trade union in a public utility undertaking must be registered with the proper authorities.

(7) These regulations, together with special rules for each case, shall apply to unions in government undertakings and in undertakings for communications and transport.

(8) Resolutions or official acts of trade unions or their officers which violate these regulations or other laws, so as to endanger the public welfare or public peace, shall be prohibited by the competent authorities. If the orders given are not obeyed the case shall be reported to the Ministry of Agriculture and Commerce, with a view to the dissolution of the union, or, in case of lesser seriousness, suspension of the union's activities for a period of from half a year to two years.

Strikes

When labour is fairly well organised in an industry on the lines indicated above, it gradually makes its grievances known

as opportunity arises. In recent years, therefore, strikes have become more or less frequent. In order to show labour's activities in this direction, some strikes of special significance have been selected for discussion. The causes of strikes are complicated and their effects upon industrial life considerable. But, for the present purpose, it may be noted that some strikes are dominantly economic in nature, such as the Hongkong shipping strike in 1922, some are in support of the right of association, such as the Peking-Hankow Railway strike in 1923, and some are due to a number of causes — racial, social, economic, and political — such as the Shanghai incident of 30 May 1925 and its later developments.

The initial trouble of the Peking-Hankow Railway strike began on 1 February 1923, the date chosen by the Railway Union for the celebration of its official opening and for the adoption of its constitution and by-laws. It had been arranged that 130 representatives of 35 local unions should attend the meeting in Chengchow, Province of Honan, in addition to 65 representatives of the unions of other railways, and 60 representatives of newspapers and schools in other cities. But on 1 February martial law was suddenly declared in Chengchow. The Union's headquarters were guarded by armed police, and the hotels and restaurants in the city were forbidden to accommodate the union delegates. In protest the union men in the city walked out on 4 February and were soon joined by the railway workers on other sections of the same railway. Since this interfered with the operation of the railway, the police authorities forced the strikers to resume their work, killing three and wounding forty in so doing. Indignation was aroused among the rank and file of labour, and telegrams of sympathy were received from about a hundred unions throughout the country. The National Parliament in Peking moved the impeachment of the military authorities, and at a session on "labour unrest" held in the House of Representatives four resolutions were adopted in favour of (1) the recognition by the Government, in accordance with the Provisional Constitution of the Republic, of the workers' right to hold meetings, (2) release by the Government of those workers who were under arrest, (3) the grant by the Government of money to the families of the deceased or wounded, (4) the removal by the Government of troops and police from the railway stations.

Strikes due to economic causes are relatively more numerous than those due to other causes. An example is the Hongkong shipping strike, which lasted from 13 January to 5 March 1922.

Since 1914, the cost of polished rice in Shanghai had increased by 125 per cent. ; in Hongkong over the same period it had increased by 155 per cent. Prices of commodities had advanced too fast and the slow increase in wages could not adequately meet the rising cost of living. This caused general discontent among the rank and file of labour. In Canton strikes were numerous, especially in 1921 when strikes occurred in almost every important industry. In Hongkong, since the strike of 20 April 1920 which involved 9,000 workers, local workers were increasingly dissatisfied with capitalists. This class feeling was intensified when towards the end of 1921 foreign seamen in the Colony, who already had a comparatively higher scale of wages, were granted a further increase of 15 per cent., whereas most of the Chinese seamen were still being paid at pre-war rates. Because of this discrimination the Chinese seamen had a general grievance against the shipowners. Since the shipping companies refused to consider the seamen's demands for a wage increase, the Chinese Seamen's Union on 13 January declared a strike, which was soon joined by sympathetic strikers from many trades and industries in Hongkong. At its most serious stage the strikers numbered about 50,000, and 166 steamers, with a total tonnage of 280,404, were tied up in the port. This caused direct losses of $5,000,000 to shipping companies, distributed among 14 different lines ; while the indirect losses, including loss of wages, destruction of property, injury to goodwill and credit, and interference with trade and commerce, were enormous. For several weeks there was complete paralysis of the industrial life of Hongkong[1].

The Shanghai incident of 30 May 1925 was the outcome of political, racial, and social-economic complications of long standing. The International Settlement of Shanghai is governed by a Municipal Council whose members are representatives of the British, American, and Japanese nationalities, the British predominating. Under its jurisdiction is a population of about a million, of which some 22,000 are foreigners, the remainder being Chinese. Yet the Chinese have no representative on the Council, although it is they who pay the greater part of the taxes, and racial antipathy and racial discrimination have been common. Recently the situation has been further aggravated by unsatisfactory labour conditions. An ordinary factory worker works about 12 hours a day

[1] For further details cf. *Monthly Labour Review*, May 1922, pp. 9-15 : " The Shipping Strike in Hongkong ", by Dr. TA CHEN.

and receives not more than 50 cents ; his earnings are not sufficient to meet the rising cost of living. Consequently, on 4 May 1925 the Chinese workmen of the Nagai Wata Kaisha Cotton Mills (of Japanese ownership) struck for an increase in wages. On 15 May a sympathetic strike was declared by the Chinese workers in five other mills, and the management of a seventh mill shut down the plant to avoid damage. A dispute arose and the management opened fire, wounding more than ten workers, one of whom was fatally wounded and died soon afterwards. Indignation was at once aroused among labour organisations, student associations, and educational and commercial bodies. Popular demonstrations began. On 30 May in particular a large demonstration paraded the streets, including students, artisans, factory workers, and others. A few of them were arrested by the foreign police ; the demand for their release brought a large number of paraders to the municipal police station, whereupon the municipal police opened fire upon the unarmed crowd, killing six and wounding more than twenty. The tragedy of 30 May thus began.

From the Nagai Wata Kaisha mill strike to the end of 1925, a series of sympathetic strikes protesting against the shooting of 30 May took place in various places in China. According to a statistical study recently made by the writer, there were 135 such strikes, distributed as follows : Shanghai, 104 ; Peking, 8 ; Hankow, Tsinan, 4 each ; Tsingtao, Kaifeng, Chiocho, Nanking, 2 each : [illegible] Chenkiang, Suikousan, Kongmoon, Swatow, [illegible] Hongkong, 1. Classified by industries these strikes [illegible] categories : (*a*) textile trades, 32 ; (*b*) foods, 14 ; (*c*) household goods, 6 ; (*d*) building and construction, 6 ; (*e*) tool making and [illegible] turing, 18 ; (*f*) communications and transport, [illegible], 2 ; (*h*) educational undertakings, 6 ; (*i*) [illegible] public health, 7 ; (*j*) ornaments and luxuries, [illegible]. Of the 135 strikes, the number of strikers [illegible] 381,387 men, or 4,057 men per strike) [illegible] strike in 25 cases (1,664 days, or 66.6 days [illegible]

[illegible] further analysed as regards the causes, [illegible] of the strikers, and results. [illegible] Cotton Mill strike, the first [illegible] all protests against the events of [illegible] expression of the patriotic [illegible] recent nationalist movement. [illegible] causes, such as demands

regarding wages, hours of labour, and the social treatment of the workers. Strikes due to these other causes have yielded the following results : one case of complete success, 35 cases of partial success, one case of failure, and 98 cases not reporting. In 17 cases the right to organise trade unions was recognised, in 16 cases the workers received a subsidy for the strike period in addition to an improvement in working conditions, and in 18 cases the strikers secured increases in wages.

The data regarding the methods of mediation and conduct of the strikers are incomplete : one case was settled by the management directly, one case by a mass meeting of the strikers, 7 cases by joint meetings of representatives of the management and of the workers, 11 cases by inviting disinterested individuals to arbitrate, 12 cases by inviting a chamber of commerce to arbitrate, 4 cases by inviting local officials to arbitrate, and 2 cases by inviting the federation of labour unions to arbitrate. The following information was obtained as to whether the strikers were riotous : in 3 cases the Chinese police were called out, in 2 cases the foreign police were called out, and in 3 cases there was injury to persons

Space does not permit an outline of even the most significant strikes arising from the affair of 30 May. A brief account may be given of one of the most remarkable, which occurred in the South and resulted in the boycotting of Hongkong by Canton. The seamen on a line of British steamers struck first (in June 1925), and the strike quickly spread. Five days from the commencement of the strike a parade including students, merchants, labourers, and soldiers, was organised to demonstrate against Shameen, the foreign settlement at Canton. Firing broke out, with the result that many Chinese and a few foreigners were killed or wounded. Feeling was greatly inflamed and the Canton Government (1) forbade the ships of Great Britain and Japan from entering South China ports, (2) gave the right to examine ships to the " Federation of Anti-Imperialist Societies ", and (3) set an embargo on the export of food and raw materials. The Cantonese laid down terms for the Hongkong Government to accept as the condition of ending the boycott. The conditions for resuming work demanded by the Chinese labourers in foreign employ who had left Hongkong at the beginning of the boycott included, in addition to many political provisions, an 8-hour day, a minimum wage, collective bargaining with employers, the abolition of contract labour, improvement of the living conditions of woman and child labour, and compulsory labour insurance. For more than a year all

attempts at negotiation failed, and the boycott was not called off until October 1926. The losses to both Hongkong and Canton were enormous.

In Shanghai the changes in the labour situation following the original Shanghai incident of 30 May 1925 have had a less direct political effect, though they have not been without a bearing on the international situation; but they may yet prove to have been of more significance from an internal and purely labour point of view. But as the situation is still changing rapidly, it may be well to defer any attempt to describe it until greater stability has been reached.

The May-Day Celebrations

The activities of organised labour come to the notice of the public in yet another way, namely, the May-Day Celebrations. On 1 May 1920 the cities of Peking, Shanghai, and Canton saw for the first time workingmen's demonstrations. Most of the handicraftsmen and organised workers in these cities had a holiday so that they could meet together for a parade and for meetings. Other social classes, such as student associations and chambers of commerce, either expressed their sympathy for labour or sent representatives to join the workers' celebrations. Handbills and pamphlets were freely distributed, some of them clearly showing the aims of the workers. One of them put forward the claim for "rice for all and labour for all"; another exclaimed "down with capitalism"; a third suggested "a union of all the workers"; a fourth advocated the division of the day into three equal portions, devoting eight hours to labour, eight hours to rest, and eight hours to education. In addition there were brief talks on the history of the May-Day demonstrations in the West, the fundamentals of citizenship, and the aims of labour organisations. Since 1920 the custom has been observed every year in an increasing number of cities and an increasing number of workmen have joined in the celebrations. In 1924 the May-Day Celebration in Shanghai was notable for the presence of Dame Adelaide Anderson, formerly Principal Lady Inspector of Factories in Great Britain, Mr. Bunji Suzuki, President of the General Federation of Labour of Japan, and Mr. Wang Tsin-Wei, a liberal leader of the Kuomintang. More than 2,000 people representing about 50 organisations participated in the parade. A new "labour song" was sung. Commit-

tees were chosen to carry on propaganda for the cause of labour. Owing to political unrest, the May-Day celebrations in 1926 were generally restricted by the local authorities.

Labour's Demand for International Representation

As the organisation of Chinese labour is still in its infancy, it offers no persistent demand for international representation. Some demand there is, of course, and this is due to both internal and external reasons. Among some labour leaders and men who are interested in labour, there is a natural desire that labour's views should be represented at meetings of international organisations. Then, too, from the international point of view, other countries certainly wish to procure economic, industrial, and social data about China in order to promote better international good will. In 1919, when the First Session of the International Labour Conference was held in Washington, China had an official representative there. At recent Sessions of the International Labour Conference in Geneva, the Chinese Ministers to certain European countries and other diplomats have frequently acted as Chinese representatives. This method of representation, however, is unsatisfactory from several points of view. According to special provisions in Part XIII of the Treaty of Versailles, which created the International Labour Organisation and laid down rules for the appointment of delegates from each State Member to the annual International Labour Conference, it was stated that there should be delegates from each nation representing the government, the employers, and the workers, respectively. Before the First Session of the Conference met in 1919, the Chinese Minister of Agriculture and Commerce declared that Chinese industry was still in the handicraft stage and had not yet reached such a stage of development as to warrant a delegate from labour. This immediately aroused opposition from a member of the House of Representatives, who asserted that the Government was foregoing its privilege and would thereby lose its prestige in international affairs. Influential labour associations also contended that diplomatic representatives who might be handicapped by official duties and were out of touch with home conditions were sometimes not the proper persons to represent the interests of labour, and that labour must have its own representatives. The organisations of the oversea Chinese were especially determined on this point. Labour leaders and writers on social

questions who hoped to stimulate industrial and social progress in the country also agreed with their view. But the Chinese Government has not yet sent special delegates for labour, notwithstanding repeated requests from the International Labour Organisation. Before the annual Conference takes place, the programme is sent to the Chinese Government for suggestions and proposals. When the programme of the Sixth Session of the Conference (1924) came to Peking, the Government was especially interested in the question of workmen's compensation for accidents and equality of treatment for national and foreign workers. Each year China submits her views to the Conference on various problems which concern her.

In August 1924, when the Red International of Labour Unions met in Moscow, Chinese workers were represented at the conference. When called upon to make a report the Chinese delegates pointed out the growing strength of nationalism in China and stated that the leaders of the movement were fighting two monster evils of the times : militarism as a national evil, and imperialism as an international evil. In this struggle the Kuomintang is credited with having taken a leading part, as its party platform includes national and international reforms. Internationally it stands for the abolition of concessions, of extraterritoriality, and of unequal treaties. Nationally it is in favour of popular elections, freedom of speech, of the press, and of association, land reform, and the nationalisation of the railways.

Conclusion

In the light of the facts given above certain conclusions seem inevitable. In the first place, in order to strengthen the labour movement, labour must be divorced from both politics and radicalism, for in recent years political changes and communistic propaganda have adversely affected the cause of labour. Meantime, strenuous efforts should be made to recruit men of courage and determination to fight the cause of labour independently and unselfishly. Unless there are a considerable number of men with a strong conviction that social and industrial progress will come only through an emancipated proletariat, it will not be possible to carry on a fruitful labour movement. Secondly, the predominant ambition of labour should be the social and economic improvement of the workmen, for their misery to-day is fundamen-

tally due to combined social and economic causes. The main questions at issue include wages, hours of labour, conditions of employment, and social treatment by the employers. Only when the workers have an income adequate to maintain a decent standard of living can higher ideals of social life be discussed. The economic phase of the fight should precede any other consideration in a programme of social reconstruction for present-day China. Thirdly, unsound practices should be avoided. A general tendency to-day is to imitate the tactics of the labour movement in the west. Certain practices may have been successful for the struggle between capital and labour in Europe or America but may yet be ineffective in China. Regulations or policies of trade unions may be efficient for one society but unsuitable for another. Certain aspects of the Chinese labour movement to-day are still too foreign in spirit. Trade union methods and practices of western countries should be so modified as to suit economic and social conditions in China. The 8-hour working day should not be blindly advocated when the 10-hour day would in many cases be a blessing to the workers. It is useless to agitate blindly for labour co-partnership in industry when the majority of the workers are still illiterate and care little for such privileges. What is urgently needed, then, is a programme of practical reforms, based upon existing social conditions, which shall truly serve to promote the welfare and happiness of the workers. Some fundamental work must be done to build up an intelligent proletariat capable of appreciating and using wisely its just rights and privileges. Gradually its social standards should be raised, so as to ensure industrial peace in the nation, and so ultimately throughout the world.

The Austrian Works Councils Act in Practice: I

by

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An interesting feature of early post-war legislation was the institution of works councils in various countries. Between 1919 and 1922 Austria, Czechoslovakia, and Germany, and on a smaller scale Norway and Luxemburg, passed laws on the subject. The International Labour Office has already published several articles and reports on both the contents of these laws, and the results of their application[1]. *In all branches of the law, but especially where a comparatively new experiment is concerned, an adequate judgment of the value of an Act and proper understanding of its meaning must be based on a study of its effects in practice, and in particular on a knowledge of judicial decisions as to its scope and interpretation. For this reason it has been thought interesting to ask Professor Adler, the author of the earlier article on the contents of the Austrian Act, to contribute a further account of how the Act has worked in practice, and in particular of the decisions on various disputed points which have been given by the competent Conciliation Boards, and the opinions to which the works councils have given rise after some years' experience of their working.*

Opinions on the Act and its Results

IN AN earlier article in the *International Labour Review*[2] the present writer gave an account of the provisions of the

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[1] *Works Councils in Germany.* Studies and Reports, Series B, No. 6. Geneva, 1921. (Contains also a brief account of the legislation of Austria, Czechoslovakia, Norway, and Luxemburg.)

Works Councils in Germany, by M. Berthelot. Studies and Reports, Series B, No. 13. Geneva, 1924.

International Labour Review, Vol. I, No. 2, February 1921: "The German Works Councils Act and its Significance", by Eduard Bernstein; Vol. II, No. 1, April 1927: "Works Councils and Arbitration Tribunals in the Czechoslovakian Mining Industry"; Vol. III, Nos. 1-2, July-Aug. 1921: "Works Councils in Consumers' Co-operative Societies in Germany"; Vol. V, No. 3, March 1922: "The Works Councils Act in Austria", by Professor Emanuel Adler; Vol. XI, No. 2, Feb. 1925: "The Legal Nature and Economic Significance of the German Works Councils", by Hermann Dersch.

[2] *International Labour Review*, Vol. V, No. 3, March 1922, pp. 411-436: "The Works Councils Act in Austria", by Prof. Emanuel Adler.

Austrian Act of 15 March 1919 on works councils, and discussed the significance of the institution. At that time the Act had only been in operation for a short period; the feelings of both parties were still unsettled by the war and the Revolution and a calm estimate of the value of the new institution was impossible.

Since then more than five years have elapsed; Austria has passed through the period of inflation and the immense fall in the value of money, with the consequent reorganisation of the national finances and stabilisation of the currency and the severe economic depression and unemployment which accompany these measures, and is still far from normal economic and labour conditions; but the works councils have had time to prove their value, and to-day it can be definitely stated that they have fully justified their existence. It is true that the workers' hope that the councils would be an instrument in the socialisation of industry has not been fulfilled. Further, of the two fundamental tasks assigned to the works councils — to watch over the interests of the workers and to collaborate in the management of the undertaking and further its ends — the latter has been left strictly in the background by the Austrian Act; and experience has shown that the councils did not and could not carry out this latter task, while they have devoted themselves to the former with very considerable energy and success. But in the capitalist system here precisely lies the great and important function they have to fulfil[1].

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[1] The idea of works councils is in any case not a creature of the Revolution, nor was it first devised as a means of socialisation. Quite apart from the forerunner of the works council — the factory committee — one of the places where the idea occurs is a well-known proclamation of the Emperor William II, dated as far back as 4 February 1890, which Bismarck refused to sign. The passage in question runs as follows:

"When I came to the Throne I announced My determination of promoting the further development of Our legislation in the direction marked out by My late Grandfather in his pursuit of the interests of the economically weaker portion of the nation, in the spirit of Christian ethics. Valuable and successful as are the legislative and administrative measures hitherto taken to improve the position of the working classes, yet they do not fulfil the whole task set Me. In addition to the further development of workers' insurance legislation, the existing provisions of the Industrial Code on the conditions of employment of factory workers must undergo examination in order to do justice to the complaints and wishes expressed in this domain, in so far as they are well founded. This examination must start from the assumption that it is one of the tasks of the supreme power of the State to regulate the hours, the duration, and the conditions of the work in such a way as to safeguard the maintenance of health, the demands of morality, the economic needs of the workers, and their claim to equal rights established by law. In the interest of peace between employers and workers, consideration must be given to the drafting of legal provisions concerning those forms in which *the workers, through representatives who enjoy their confidence, are given a share in the settlement of affairs concerning both parties in common, and are enabled to watch over their own*

The employers' fears that the works councils would make the workers revolutionary, keep them in a state of continental unrest, and so only disturb the peace between employers and workers, and that they would only injure the undertaking by their influence on its management, have also been proved quite baseless. Evidence has on the contrary steadily accumulated to show that in large undertakings the employers cannot do without some means of negotiation between themselves and their workers; that at times of crisis the effect of the councils is to calm excitement and clear away difficulties; and that the workers are more likely to put up with unfavourable but unavoidable measures if these have been arranged and explained to them by their own works councils which have negotiated with the employer and secured any possible alleviation of his proposals.

It is in any case the fact that complaints about the works councils on the part of the employers' organisations are practically silenced. And the statements made by the Federation of Austrian Industries (*Hauptverband der Industrie Oesterreichs*) in a memorandum against the constitution of works councils submitted to the League of Nations Commission in the summer of 1924 cannot be considered as expressing a feeling of grave injury by these councils. The memorandum reads as follows:

> The legislation of the Revolution period also brought the so-called Works Councils Act. The economic result which it was ostensibly to achieve, namely, that the workers should acquire an interest in production and make proposals to this end, has not been reached in a single case. The works councils have appeared as advocates only of demands of the workers which were of but momentary importance — demands not solely material but also political — even when these demands were opposed to the interests of production. A levy is imposed on the undertaking, which is paid nominally by the worker, but in fact, like all such levies, by the employer. The members of the councils are withdrawn from their ordinary work; wages must therefore be paid for work which has not been done. Employees, workers, and servants have to be represented on the board of directors of a joint-stock company; all such boards are unanimous in declaring that the works council representatives have never contributed anything to the discussion when productive proposals were in question, but only when the interests — real or alleged — of the workers and employees were affected.

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interests in negotiations with the employers and with the organs of My Government. Through such an institution the workers are to be given the possibility of free and peaceable expression of their wishes and complaints, and the authorities of the State the opportunity of keeping themselves continually informed of the conditions of employment of the workers and of maintaining contact with the latter."

(BISMARCK: *Gedanken und Erinnerungen*, Vol. III, pp. 66 *et seq.*)

An " economic programme of Austrian industry ", too, issued at the beginning of 1926, demanded the reform of the Works Councils Act in only one quite secondary point : it merely asked for the mitigation of the provisions regarding the dismissal of members of works councils in the case of restrictions on production, without otherwise taking up a definite attitude on the question of the councils. Beyond these there are no recorded opinions on the part of employers or their organisations — a fact which to the present writer seems to indicate, not that the employers are bearing an intolerable burden in silence, because they cannot get rid of it, but rather that they have really no serious complaints to make.

But there is an equal absence of complaints about the Works Councils Act and of proposals for its amendment on the part of the workers' organisations, although they undoubtedly use the institution to the fullest extent. For this very reason they accept it as a matter of course, about which there is in principle nothing more to say, even though many differences of opinion may still arise over details or with individual employers. It has already been pointed out that the activity of the councils only extends to watching over the interests of the staff of the works, but in general the workers and employees themselves attach little value to the task of participating in the management of the undertaking. In any case they have expressed no wish for the amendment or extension of the Works Councils Act ; in particular they have made no proposals in the direction of strengthening the powers of the councils in the sense of the German Act, in so far as this contains provisions which are more favourable for the councils.

In the absence of any emphatic statement by the parties concerned it is the more interesting to hear the opinions of impartial observers on the works councils. First among these witnesses are clearly the industrial inspectors. In the report on their official activities in the year 1921 they already say :

> The works councils are settling down in the sphere of action assigned to them, and in most undertakings they are being encouraged and fitted to carry out their tasks. . . . As regards the relations between the works councils and the employers, it is true that there are still heads of factories who describe the works councils as irksome supervisory bodies, but on the whole the sharpest opposition has largely died down ; not infrequently the works councils are even hailed as specially valuable collaborators in the maintenance of peace and order in the works and the settlement of wage disputes. . . . Almost everywhere the works councils show extraordinary activity in carrying out their duties.

Frequently they are only familiar with their own works, so that in spite of good intentions they are not in a position to take in the conditions of industry in general or of large industrial groups; and it is not easy for them at once to grasp the meaning of the labyrinth of legislative provisions for industry and handicrafts. In the technical sphere, when the improvement of the works installation is concerned, it is after all only within a very limited range and at most only in isolated cases that the works councils can collaborate in increasing output by the expression of their opinion; for indeed, as is well known, decisions of this kind almost always call for prolonged study and wide experience. In the sphere of technical measures for the social protection of the workers — introduction of measures for the prevention of disease, etc. — the works councils have not . . . up to the present collaborated to the needful degree, although in individual cases they have made valuable proposals.

On the other hand the industrial inspectors report that their demands are always supported by the works councils, and that the latter — an extremely important fact — in the absence of the inspector have repeatedly expedited the carrying out of his demands. In all questions of agreements and settlements about wages, salaries, hours of work, night work, and Sunday work, too, as well as in the drafting of rules of employment, the works councils have been most active, so that such opinions as the following have repeatedly been pronounced by the employers: " If the works councils had not been introduced by law, we should have had to create them ourselves. "

The latest available report of the industrial inspectors, that for 1924, states that " no striking observations " have been made on this subject, but again lays stress on the necessity of providing a very thorough training for members of works councils, so that they may be able to do full justice to their tasks. It is pointed out that the consciousness that they cannot fully cope with their tasks for want of the necessary knowledge is the cause of many works councils' limiting their activities to some branches only out of the possible total; the inspectors even think that they have noticed a falling-off in the interest taken in the elections of works councils for this reason.

In a recent work on labour legislation and the protection of the worker[1] by two former officials of the Ministry of Social Administration, whose official activities have given them adequate practical knowledge, the following statement is made about works councils:

The complaints raised in the early days among employers as to the interfering proclivities of the works councils have gradually been

[1] Max LEDERER and Viktor SUCHANEK: *Arbeitsrecht und Arbeiterschutz.* Vienna. Staatsdruckerei, 1925.

silenced. Apparently the whole institution has by degrees become part of the accepted order of things and has many times contributed to the maintenance of industrial peace in the undertakings. In isolated cases disputes have been caused by the works councils' methods of conducting their business, but they have been settled without difficulty by the competent Conciliation Boards.

The resolution adopted by the International Congress on Social Policy held in Prague at the end of 1924 is also relevant and may be quoted here :

> All who work in any branch of economic life, whether production, commerce, transport, or agriculture, must be provided with the means of exerting their influence on the organisation and management of industry. If only work can save industry, then industry needs workers who take pleasure in, and are interested in, their own occupation and their contribution to production.

Settlement of Disputes by the Conciliation Boards

If both parties — employers and workers — are now on friendly terms with the institution of works councils in itself, this certainly does not mean that disputes over special points are non-existent. The number of these disputes and their severity will depend on various factors : the temperament of the persons in question, their understanding of the facts and of the law, the general economic position, and the relative bargaining strength of the two parties in the works. In general the number of strikes and lockouts in the Austrian Republic has diminished in recent years ; in particular, there is no record of a labour dispute of any consequence due to a difference of opinion caused by the Works Councils Act.

By the terms of the Act, disputes with regard to the establishment and working of a works council, or the scope of its rights and duties, are referred to a special body, known as a Conciliation Board. The Board acts through a committee consisting of three persons : a representative each of the employers and of the workers, appointed by the Ministry of Social Administration on the nomination of their respective trade organisations, and an impartial chairman, who need not be, but usually is, a judge on the active list. As its name indicates, the Conciliation Board must first try to reach an agreement between the parties to the dispute ; it is only on failure of this attempt — which can always be repeated — that they have to adopt a decision. This decision is final, and legal proceedings against it (including appeals to the Central Conciliation Board) are not admitted.

It was clearly the deliberate intention of the Act that the hearing of disputes should be limited to a single tribunal, the highest importance being attached to a rapid settlement of all such disputes. The principle is thoroughly sound; for in the interests of the satisfactory working of the undertaking these disputes must be settled as quickly as possible, to prevent feelings from becoming heated and to enable employers and workers to know at the earliest moment how they stand. The system of the single tribunal may have its failings, but these are not too high a price to pay for speed. Unfortunately the Administrative Court has ignored this tendency of the Act, and in several cases in which complaints have been submitted to it has asserted its competence in the matter (Decisions No. 3,115 and No. 3,409[1]), giving as its reason that the Conciliation Boards "are authorities entrusted with the care of government business, and that complaints against them, as against decisions of the administrative authorities, can be brought before the Administrative Court". This means in the first place that the definite settlement of the dispute is seriously delayed, as the period within which complaints may be submitted to the Administrative Court is 60 days, and the elaborate procedure in the Court usually takes at least as long again. A further drawback is that the Administrative Court has not the advantages generally possessed by the Conciliation Board due to its including representatives from both camps and being constantly occupied with labour disputes and collective agreements; and its decisions, being necessarily taken from the legal point of view, are not in harmony with the body of "conciliatory" precedents formed by the decisions of the Boards. The Act on conciliation and collective agreements states that the decision of the Conciliation Board is final, but has omitted to state explicitly that the Administrative Court has no competence here, as was clearly the intention. A further argument is that in this form of activity, which the Act describes as "judicial", the Conciliation Board can hardly be considered an administrative authority. In any case the Central Conciliation Board[2] has expressed the opinion, concurred in by both employers' and workers' representatives, that all steps must

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[1] These, and other similar references throughout the article, denote the number under which the decision in question is published in the official *Sammlung arbeitsrechtlicher Entscheidungen der Gerichte und Einigungsämter*; for decisions not included in this collection the date is given.

[2] Cf. *Arbeit und Wirtschaft*, 1925, p. 210.

be taken to secure the denial by express legal prescription of the competence of the Administrative Court.

The main points on which employers and workers tend to differ emerge most clearly on an examination of the decisions of the Conciliation Boards. Wherever the Works Councils Act leaves any scope for different interpretations, the employers try to stretch it as far as possible in their favour, while on many points the workers apply an equal effort in the opposite direction. It is here especially instructive to study the general trend of the decisions of the Boards, as it is only in this way that knowledge can be gained of what the Works Councils Act really is and does.

Field of Application of the Act

Agricultural Undertakings. The Works Councils Act applies to all kinds of undertakings, including forestry undertakings, and industrial undertakings connected with agriculture such as distilleries, sugar factories, etc. Agricultural undertakings themselves are alone excluded; this is timidly expressed in the Act by the statement that the legal position of workers in these undertakings, and arrangements for safeguarding their interests, are to be regulated by a special Act. Up to the present there is no Federal Act of this kind; in some of the separate States Acts have been passed to regulate the legal position of agricultural workers, but none of them contain any provisions on the lines of the Works Councils Act. One Act, that of the Burgenland, proposed to protect representatives chosen by the workers in separate undertakings against dismissal; but objections were raised by the Government and it has not yet come into force. But the struggle waged by the workers for the protection of their representatives has not been hindered by this, and in spite of repeated failure the Union of Land and Forest Workers, which has headed this struggle in Lower Austria, has unweariedly returned to the attack again and again in recent years. During 1926 the Union was helped by the landlords' attempts to raise the duties on flour and sugar, as the Social-Democratic Party declared in Parliament that it would not consent to the raising of these duties until the protection of workers' representatives in agricultural undertakings was recognised. An agreement was therefore concluded between the agricultural employers and the Union, according to which the representatives of the land workers on separate

estates cannot be dismissed without the consent of the Union, except in cases where there is legal ground for immediate dismissal.

Home Work. It is not stated in the Act itself whether it applies to home workers. The question is dealt with in a decision of the Central Conciliation Board of 6 November 1923 (Decision No. 3,188). The conclusion here reached is that home workers are in principle not within the scope of the Act, and that in any individual case quite special conditions must be present in order to justify its application to home workers; for instance, if a fairly large number of them are employed exclusively and permanently in working for a single employer, such work being their principle occupation, and if the separate workplaces are near enough together and the general interests involved of such a kind that a works council can really carry out its duties.

Banks. Among the undertakings covered by the Act, banks are expressly mentioned in section 1. The Austrian National Bank is therefore obviously included. But when it was founded in 1922, its regulations were fixed by a special Act; this specifies the composition of the General Council (as the administrative council of the Bank is called), but does not mention the works council, which in joint-stock companies, according to the Works Councils Act, has the right to appoint two representatives to serve on the administrative council. The management of the Bank therefore refused to invite the representatives of the works council to the meetings of the General Council. The employees of the Bank appealed to the Conciliation Board, which declared that this standpoint was justified, on the ground that the composition of the General Council was fixed by a special Act, which being subsequent to the Works Councils Act must be held to have modified it in this point in so far as it applies to the National Bank. In the end the continued pressure of the employees and their trade union led to a compromise. A further Act of 16 July 1925 was passed which provides that the works councils of officials, clerks, and workers respectively employed by the Bank are each entitled to send one representative to attend discussions in the General Council of questions affecting the staff; and that in exercising this privilege these representatives have the same rights and duties as the ordinary members of the General Council, except that each of them may vote only on questions which concern the group of the staff represented by him. As concerns the National Bank, therefore, the principle is essentially maintained that the works council is given no share in the management of the undertaking.

but is limited to the representation of the interests of the staff, in accordance with the terms of the Act.

Public Offices and State Transport. Section 2 of the Works Councils Act provides that in public offices and in railways, shipping undertakings, and the postal, telegraph, and telephone services, bodies corresponding to works councils are to be set up by Administrative Orders, under special agreements between the competent authorities and the staff concerned. At present such bodies exist for the staff of the railways and the postal and telegraph services; a system of elected representatives for the members of the Army has been introduced; workers employed in state educational institutions and women domestic servants in female educational institutions have also their own representatives; and so have the staff of the First Danube Steam Shipping Company.

Changes in the Number Employed in the Works

The form of representation in an undertaking other than a factory depends on the number of persons employed in it; if there are less than 20, the duties of the works council are undertaken by one or two representatives (*Vertrauensmänner*). Further, when there is a works council, the number of its members increases with the number of persons employed (section 9 of the Act). When a new election is to be held it is clear that in either case the number employed at the date of the election is the determining factor. But if there is a change in the number employed after the election and during the term of office of the council or the representatives, which would have altered the form of the election if it had happened earlier, the matter is less simple. If representatives were elected, and if the number employed rises to more than 20 (and is likely to remain so), then a works council should certainly now be elected. On the other hand, an increase in the number of persons employed has in practice nowhere given rise to a demand for an increase in the number of members of a works council. Then there is the question of what is to happen if the number employed falls. The answer given by the Central Conciliation Board (Decision No. 3,054) is that a change in the number employed has no effect on the number of members of the works council, because the Act fixes the minimum term of office for a works council at a year; and in inserting this proviso it was clearly reckoning with the fact

that the number employed would fluctuate, but that there would be serious disturbance of the works if every change in this number were to be the occasion for a change in the membership of the works council. This holds alike for an increase or a decrease; in the latter case a further argument is that it would be doubtful which member of the works council would have to resign his appointment. The works council has therefore in every case to exercise its mandate for the full term. The Wiener Neustadt Conciliation Board has explicitly stated (Decision No. 3,300) that this holds even if the number employed falls below 20, so that at the next election only representatives would have to be elected, though the grounds for this opinion are not conclusive. The same view is expressed in Decisions No. 3,309 and No. 3,350. Finally, Decision No. 3,361 holds that if a member of a works council retires a substitute must be appointed, even if the number of workers has decreased in the meanwhile, and asserts that the invariability of the number of members of the council is the only possible principle and in the absence of legal provision to the contrary is supported by the Act.

The Functions of the Works Council

The rights and duties of the works council are set out in section 3 of the Act in the following terms :

> It shall be the duty of works councils to watch over and promote the industrial, social, and intellectual interests of the workers and employees in the undertaking. In particular, the following matters shall come within the sphere of their rights and duties : . . .

There follows an enumeration of their functions to the number of twelve. It follows from the use of the phrase " in particular " that the list is not exhaustive, although it is legally of great importance. The works councils seem to be in any case empowered to extend their activities beyond what is explicitly set out in section 3, at least within the sphere of watching over and promoting the economic, social, or intellectual interests of the workers and employees. But the employer has no obligations with respect to any such activities ; his obligations, which are in fact restrictions on his freedom, extend only so far as explicitly specified by the

Act. If for instance a works council decides to introduce courses of vocational instruction for the workers, it is acting within its legitimate sphere, but the employer is not bound to allow the workers the necessary free time to attend the courses, or to contribute to their cost, even if the better education of his workpeople is very much to his advantage.

It appears, however, that the needs and wishes of the workers are fully satisfied by the list of tasks set out in the Act, as there have been only sporadic attempts to extend the list.

In contrast to the German Works Councils Act (sections 74, 78, 81 *et seq.*), the Austrian Act allows the works council no say in the engagement of new workers. An attempt by a works council to claim such a right was rejected by the St. Pölten Conciliation Board (Decision No. 3,045) on the ground that the works council has no power to intervene in the engagement of the staff, and that it is not competent either to prevent such an engagement or to ask that it should be cancelled. As a matter of fact it quite often happens that the works council is given certain rights of intervention in new engagements by the terms of an agreement, or at least is able to exert some such influence in practice.

So far, therefore, as concerns functions explicitly assigned to the works council by the Act, disputes have occurred not over the extension of this sphere of action beyond the limits laid down in the Act, but rather because there have been differences of opinion as to the scope of the Act. The disputes of this kind which have been settled by the Conciliation Boards are not of special importance. For instance, the only decision relating to the right of examining the balance sheet is an opinion of the Central Conciliation Board in answer to the question whether this right existed in certain undertakings. This is certainly proof that this provision, which was at first so much dreaded by the employers, has in practice lost most of its terrors for them — a result which may perhaps also be connected with the fact that the workers cannot do much with the figures of the balance sheet placed at their disposal under this provision of the law, and that this right of examination has little importance for the promotion of the interests of the workers. The Conciliation Boards, too, show no tendency to extend the scope of this provision. Decision No. 3,034, for instance, states that the employer is not obliged to show the works council the accounts from which the balance sheet has been made up, and Decision No. 3,035 of another Board declares that the works council is not entitled to ask for information on the credits granted, the

orders in hand, and the business prospects of the undertaking.

The right of examining the wage lists raises the frequent question whether this right extends to the salaries of the managers of the undertaking. Various answers have been given, sometimes affirmative and sometimes negative. But it can hardly be supposed that this could in any way serve the interests of the workers, or that it could have any but a demagogical purpose. Decisions have also repeatedly been given to the effect that the works council has only the right of examining the wage lists, and that while it may itself make copies of them, the employer is not obliged to have copies prepared for the council.

According to the Austrian Act, in joint-stock companies the works council appoints two representatives to serve on the administrative council or board of directors; these representatives have the same rights as the other members of the board, except that they have no authority to sign for the firm and have no claim to directors' profits (*tantièmes*). In spite of this there have been numerous decisions (e.g. St. Pölten Conciliation Board, 25 June 1925; Vienna Commercial Court, 10 September 1925) to the effect that the members of the board of directors appointed by the works council have the right to vote on all questions and not only on questions affecting the staff.

The further question of whether these works council representatives have also the right of taking part in the general meeting of the company was answered affirmatively by one Conciliation Board and negatively by another. The legal point here does not really arise out of the Works Councils Act, but out of the law on joint-stock companies, and the answer depends upon whether by this law the right of taking part in the general meeting attaches to the members of the board of directors as such, regardless of their holding in the shares of the company. If this is so, then there is no doubt that the members appointed by the works council have the same right. But the question is not explicitly settled by Austrian law.

The working of the clauses on discipline has not produced many disputes. According to section 3 (6) of the Act, penalties for acts contrary to discipline may only be inflicted in accordance with the rules of employment, and only by a committee on which both the employer and the works council shall each have a representative. The Act thus makes it clear that this provision is intended only for breaches of the rules of employment and for penalties laid down in these rules; evidently factory work and the fines laid

down for minor offences in factory rules of employment were primarily in view. The provision cannot be applied to the immediate dismissal of a worker without notice, even if this is a penalty for an offence. Attempts have naturally been made to get such cases treated as disciplinary penalties in the sense of the Act. But the Leoben and Graz Conciliation Boards have rightly held (Decisions No. 3,232 and No. 3,502) that such dismissals are in principle not matters of ordinary discipline and that therefore the intervention of the committee on discipline referred to in the Act is not called for. It need not be feared that the result will be to deprive the dismissed worker of all protection, as it is the business of the Courts to decide whether the dismissal is justified. There can be no possible question of the dismissal of a worker, for any reason whatever, being considered a disciplinary penalty; the Salzburg Conciliation Board has indeed had to make an explicit declaration to this effect in settling a dispute.

The only case — as has more than once (Decisions of 23 November 1922 and No. 3,402) been declared by the Graz Conciliation Board — in which the committee on discipline must intervene is when a worker is dismissed without notice for breach of the rules of employment, and when dismissal is among the penalties provided in these rules for acts contrary to discipline.

It may also be mentioned here that the Austrian Act of 13 July 1922 on theatrical contracts of service provides that monetary fines may be inflicted for breach of the theatre rules of employment, and that the amount of the fine shall be laid down in the rules; in each individual case the fine may not exceed the amount of the fixed pay for half a month. The provisions of the Works Councils Act apply to the imposition of fines under the rules; if there is no works council, the fines imposed by the employer may be modified by judicial decision.

But these and other differences of opinion and debatable matters are after all of merely secondary significance. They are not important enough, either in number or in scope, to be regarded as more than differences as to the interpretation of the text of the Act, without being in any way conclusive for determining the value of the institution. Real divergence of opinion between the parties centres round two questions, the works council's right to object to the dismissal of a worker, and the immunity of the members of the works council. It is in these two points that there is the most pronounced limitation of the power of the employer, of the principle that he is " master in his own house ", with the cor-

responding assertion of the *de jure* and *de facto* power of the works council. This also represents an extension of labour law in a direction alien to its former trend, the outcome being in fact that the employer can no longer dismiss his workpeople at his own discretion. These two points must therefore be examined in further detail.

(To be continued.)

The Science of Farm Labour:

Scientific Management and German Agriculture

The present article discusses the application to agriculture of principles of Taylorism and of Scientific Management, which are now making rapid progress in the manufacturing industries. A practical beginning has been made in Germany, but the interest shown in the idea in other countries proves the problem to be one of general importance. The information here presented is the result of a study into existing German literature supplemented by a personal visit of the author to the German experimental station for the science of farm labour at Pommritz. Thanks are here expressed to the authorities in Germany and to the Director of the Pommritz Institute for the facilities accorded.

The purpose of this article is to familiarise agricultural circles with the new ideas described. Criticism or advocacy of the new science has been avoided and would be impossible at present. In the same way a discussion of its repercussions on the social side of the agricultural labour question would appear premature.

I

THE great expansion of output in world production during the last hundred and fifty years is due to technical invention and scientific investigation. But invention and investigation were until recently applied only to machinery, mechanical power, or in other similar directions. The well-known American engineer, Taylor, was the first systematically to examine how to use human labour more effectively. Taylor's leading idea was that there must be one best way of doing a job and that this way is to be found by planned investigation of all the productive factors involved[1].

When applied to his examination of human labour this idea resulted in the following principles :

(1) to investigate not only the operation as a whole but to

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[1] Cf. J. WALDSBURGER : *Die Rationalisierung der Arbeit*, p. 47. Berne, Grunau, 1924.

examine the single movements of which it consists, finding out what movements are necessary and what ought to be a oided;

(2) to examine what character tools and machinery should have (for example, the size of the shovel, speed of the machine) in order to give the best output together with human labour done in the right way, i.e. with the right movements; to examine location of equipment with a view to avoiding all unnecessary fatigue or delay for the workers;

(3) to transfer all work which has not positively to be carried out by the worker to a special bureau and to replace foremen controlling many different sorts of work by specialists each controlling one single part of the work;

(4) to find out how much time is needed to carry out single movements and thereby also the time needed for the whole operation, and to demand that in future the work shall be carried out in that time;

(5) to encourage or compel all workers to keep up that speed by paying premiums for speed, and to dismiss those workers who cannot keep the speed demanded of a first-class worker, thus securing a specially selected staff.

From the Taylor system has developed what is called scientific management, which in its widest sense means that nothing in an undertaking must be left to chance, but that the most rational way of doing everything must be examined. There exist various systems of scientific management, and though it cannot be said that the Taylor system in its original form has been adopted by them all, the great attention paid to labour by Taylor is still, and will remain, one of the leading ideas in all such work.

The importance of making agriculture familiar with this idea of labour management is obvious. Agriculture is an industry in which labour cost often exceeds 40 per cent. of all production costs[1]. But detailed studies seem hitherto to have been undertaken in only one country, namely, Germany. Germany is one of the countries having the best chance of obtaining good results in this direction; the idea of scientific management will always be most applicable on large-scale farms and in such farms Germany is especially rich.

The first to succeed in drawing attention to the possibility of

[1] Cf., for example, farm accounts published in Denmark, Sweden, and Switzerland. See also, for Germany, G. STIEGER: *Der Mensch in der Landwirtschaft*, pp. 102 *et seq.*; Berlin, Parey, 1922.

introducing Taylor principles in agriculture was Professor Seedorf, now of Göttingen, at that time general manager of the Agricultural Chamber in the province of Brandenburg. In a pamphlet[1] published in 1919 he discussed the improvement of agricultural labour and the training of the land worker with special regard to the Taylor system. He demanded a special institute founded to carry out tool studies and time and motion studies in agriculture; and shortly afterwards, in 1920, and partly owing to the initiative of Dr. Seedorf, an experimental station, under the direction of Professor Derlitzki, was established at Pommritz in Saxony, through the collaboration of the Government of Saxony and the Estates of the Niederlausitz. The purpose of the station was "through critical and systematic investigations to improve the element labour in agriculture, so that with as little application of energy as need be as much and as good work as possible be done, and that consequently the amount of labour used and its result stand in a favourable relation to each other[2]".

Interest developed quickly in the following years. In April 1924 the Agricultural Central Association in Königsberg created a special department for the study of farm labour. The Prussian Government has placed an experimental farm at Oldenburg (near Landsberg an der Warthe) chiefly at the disposal of experimental tests of this kind, and in Brunswick an institute for the science of farm labour has been founded in connection with the University of Göttingen. Since April 1924 a special monthly periodical, *Die Landarbeit*, has been published, which appears as annex to the *Deutsche landwirtschaftliche Presse*[3].

If the "Taylor system" in manufacturing industry is no real system, and if it is impossible in industry to trace the limits of

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[1] Dr. SEEDORF: *Die Vervollkommnung der Landarbeit und die bessere Ausbildung der Landarbeiter unter besonderer Berücksichtigung des Taylor-Systems.* Berlin, Deutsche Landbuchhandlung, 1919.

[2] *Der land- und forstwirtschaftliche Arbeitgeber*, 10 May 1924.

[3] An enquiry undertaken by the International Labour Office among agricultural personalities and institutions showed that neither the Taylor system nor the other forms of scientific management were known to have been introduced in agriculture in Belgium, Spain, France (a few experiments during the war), Italy, or Great Britain. In Great Britain some attempts seem, however, to have been made. Several institutions undertake studies on farm management, chiefly on the basis of cost accounts, which sometimes also touch the organisation of labour and especially the employment of a constant amount of labour during the year (cf. *Journal of the Ministry of Agriculture*, Oct. 1925). Further, the Department of Agriculture of the University of Leeds states that "while it has not yet been possible to do much in the direction of making detailed motion studies, the general distribution and organisation of labour (man, horse, and tractor) are carefully watched and labour-saving methods advocated wherever possible."

" scientific management ", the same is the case when these ideas are transferred to agriculture. The first German authors on this subject wrote of " Taylorism " and agriculture. But soon a new name already used in the title of this article, namely, the " science of farm labour " (*Landarbeitslehre*), became popular. The scope of this was more and more extended until it was held to comprise all labour relations. At the same time Taylorism and systems of scientific management are not felt as being the only base for the new science, but a connection has been sought with earlier authors on agriculture, even as far back as Thaer and von Thünen, tracing the source of the new science to the general science of farm organisation, an idea further pursued by Aeroboe[1].

In another direction it has been realised that the science of farm labour cannot develop without the help of the sciences of physiology and psychology, both sciences when applied being generally comprised under the name of " psychotechnics ". Dr. Steding[2] was the first to describe systematically the importance and the possibilities of applying psychotechnical methods to the improvement of farm work.

In Austria the idea has gained some ground. Some large-scale farmers try to employ the Taylor system, but no experimental stations or associations occupying themselves with this question yet exist. In Czechoslovakia the National Committee on Scientific Management, established in 1926, is a Committee of twelve members, of whom four represent agriculture; it proposes to devote itself systematically to problems of scientific management, and is in touch with the Czechoslovak Academy of Agriculture. In Poland the first attempts were made a few years ago and some lectures on the subject have been given. During the year 1925 an agricultural section was created at the Institute for the Scientific Organisation of Labour at Warsaw, which now publishes its special periodical : *Organizacja Pracy Rolnictwie*. Polish book literature does not yet exist; some translations of foreign books have, however, appeared. (Communication from the Institute for the Scientific Organisation of Labour.)

In Sweden there is an association which wishes to take up investigations on the efficiency of various labour methods, and in Finland an agricultural labour efficiency association exists which seems to work on the lines of Taylor's system and which has met with great interest among Finnish farmers. (*Svenska Dagbladet*, 26 March 1925; *Hufvudstabsbladet*, 13 Dec. 1924.)

In the United States some results have been obtained and the introduction of the Taylor system in the sugar cultivation of the Philippine Islands has been successful.

At the International Congress on the Scientific Organisation of Labour held in Brussels in October 1925, a paper was read on the principles of the scientific organisation of agricultural labour, and at the General Assembly of the International Agricultural Institute, held in Rome in April 1926, a note was also read on the study of the scientific organisation of agricultural labour. Both papers were short and did not go into the question in detail.

[1] F. Aeroboe : " Die Bedeutung der Landarbeitsforschung in Gegenwart und Zukunft ", in *Mitteilungen der Deutschen Landwirtschaftsgesellschaft*, 1925, No. 34.

[2] F. Steding : " Bedeutung und Anwendungsmöglichkeiten psychotechnischer Methoden zur Förderung der Landarbeit ", in *Landwirtschaftliche Jahrbücher*, LXI. Band, Heft 6. Berlin, Parey, 1926.

The present article proposes to outline the leading ideas which at present govern the science of farm labour in Germany[1].

II

When first the decision is taken on any farm to pay more than usual attention to the way in which work is carried out, it will nearly always be found that many improvements are possible in labour operations, even without elaborate studies. At the outset many alterations were undertaken on the Pommritz farm at small expense, and have meant much saving of labour; incidentally it may be mentioned that the Pommritz farm is still managed as a commercial proposition.

Waste of unproductive labour must be cut down as far as possible by practical lay-out of buildings. Things which belong together must be near each other. Aeroboe mentions as a deterrent example a farm he visited in which the poultry were kept in seven places and the pigs in two, while the pig kitchen was arranged far away in the sheep sheds[2]. At Pommritz the fodder store was originally in the same building as the threshing floor, while the granary was above the sheds; now the granary has changed places with the fodder-store; the result is that the interior transport distance for grain and fodder has been reduced from 230 to 24 metres[3]. Other easy changes in the buildings were also made. But it has to be admitted that the difficulty in the way of improvement is that European farm buildings often date a hundred years back[4].

Again, without great changes or a new lay-out, much saving of labour can be effected by introducing greater orderliness and care. It is not fortuitous that so many authors on farm management have to mention the need for taking care of tools, for keeping

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[1] Since this article was written a book has appeared under the title *Berichte über Landarbeit* (Vol. I. edited by Prof. Derlitzki; Stuttgart, Franck'sche Verlagsbuchhandlung, 1927) which sums up the present state of the science of farm labour in Germany. By the kindness of the editor an advance proof of part of this book was received by the International Labour Office shortly before the final revision of the present article.

[2] F. Aeroboe, in *Mitteilungen der Deutschen Landwirtschaftsgesellschaft*, 22 Aug. 1925.

[3] Prof. Derlitzki, in *Die Landarbeit*, May 1924. Berlin, Parey.

[4] The important influence of the lay-out of the farm buildings has already been referred to in this *Review* in another article (cf. *International Labour Review*, Vol. XIII, No. 3, March, 1926, pp. 309-326: "The Influence of Machinery on Agricultural Conditions in North America", by W. A. Riddell).

together those which are used together, for keeping them in repair, oiled and cleaned, for keeping them at all and not merely letting them lie about in the fields and get rusty. On larger farms it might pay to have a special tool repairer, and if his hours were arranged differently from that of the other men, he could sharpen and oil during the midday rest.

The topography of the farm also plays a considerable part. Distances must be made as short as possible, fields must be reduced in number to the strict minimum, and their shape be made as regular as possible. In Europe there are, of course, historical reasons for the inconvenient shapes of the areas which are under cultivation. At Pommritz the number of fields was reduced from 40 to 15. An experiment showed that a field of 4 morgen[1], the two sides of which had been irregular but have since been made rectangular, required 24 per cent. less labour for ploughing, 19 per cent. less for cultivating, 38 per cent. for harrowing, 40 per cent. for drilling, and 38 per cent. for hoeing[2]. If necessary such adjustments must be made through exchange with neighbouring farms, though it is perhaps utopian to touch on such points when so much simple restriping work is still outstanding.

Another point is to arrange crop rotation so as to ensure a regular distribution of labour effort through the year and avoid any exaggerated peak of the labour load.

The large question of replacing labour by machinery will not be discussed here, but it may be pointed out that small remedies sometimes give great relief to labour and have much effect in reducing unproductive effort. Examples from Pommritz may again be quoted. The usual way of sorting potatoes, where the women kneel or squat or rest their weight on the calf of the leg, was esteemed unsatisfactory. They were first given a rake with which to collect the potatoes, later a stool, and finally also a tray on to which the potatoes were shovelled; they now had the potatoes at a convenient height. The result was an increase in output of from 10 to 35 per cent. (counting in the labour of shovelling), according to the quality of the potatoes. At the same time, the work was made more agreeable for the women. Women who had hitherto abstained from this work because their build was unsuited to the difficult position now began to do it regularly.

Other efforts have been made at Pommritz to ease the labourer's

[1] 1 morgen = 0.631 acres.
[2] *Berichte über Landarbeit*, Vol. I, p. 15.

work in the field either by giving him a seat on the machine or by coupling on a separate wheeled riding-seat[1]. It is a fact that a man walking behind a 2.5 metre drill over a field of 7½ hectares expends labour amounting to a walk of 30 kilometres, and that in loose soil. The fear expressed that a riding-seat will put too much strain on the horses is often exaggerated, especially when the machine has large wheels. A 3-metre seed-drill at Pommritz with rather narrow wheels needed a pulling power of 225 kilograms without equipment, and of 250 kilograms with equipment, the equipment consisting of not less than three persons; the driver and the controller each had his seat and for the cleaner a running board had been placed on the machine. A further advantage of such arrangements is that the machine is not slowed down because the workers have to walk treading in the loose soil.

In describing these improvements Professor Derlitzki draws attention to the fact that it is quite accidental whether an agricultural machine is provided with a seat or not. It depends mostly upon whether its origin is American. In spite of the fear so often expressed of exhausting the horses by placing a seat on the machine, he has never known a case where the seat arranged by the manufacturer has been detached by the farmer.

Many changes of the type of which examples have been given show at a glance the improvement they make in working conditions. But in some cases exact observation is needed before such advantage can be substantiated. These changes mark the beginning of a rational study of labour methods on the lines of the Taylor system. The possibility of introducing tool, motion, and time studies in agriculture on the Taylor system will now be examined.

III

Every person beginning a new and hitherto untried task will find himself unable to do it in the same way, or with the same ease, as the worker who has been doing it for some time. He will use too many muscles, and quickly tire. In course of time he will become trained, or rather *habituated*, having learnt to omit some movements or to substitute others, while the muscles (and nerves) specially required for his task will have developed. He may get some hints from the older workers, but not many, because even

[1] Prof. Derlitzki, in *Die Landarbeit*, Sept. 1926.

the older workers have no exact knowledge of the single movements which go to make up the carrying out of the task. Their movements are dictated by instinct or " feel "[1].

It is very uncertain that the best manner of doing work is found in this way. Indeed, the chances are actually diminished by the capacity of the human worker to adapt himself to a customary method, even a bad one, and to become so practised in it that he gradually regards it as the most effective which could be proposed. Thus a number of skilled jobs continue to be badly performed. The great gap between good and bad agricultural practice, and the too frequent prevalence of awkward movements, ignorant waste of muscle power, and bad work, is emphasised in a little book written by an English observer[2], who describes himself as having been brought up in a district where the quintessence of traditional skill in his country was to be found. He preaches what may be called the gospel of skill. But his practical advice is founded on a selection of empiric observations such as occur to the experienced craftsman, backed by the application of certain mechanical principles. He makes no pretence of analysing motions by experimental methods and certainly not of controlling his results by scientific measurement of output or of fatigue. Such a codification of the traditional experience of the craftsman — the author significantly uses the word " artist " — is no doubt of use, but it is far from solving the problem of the best way to work.

The experiments of Taylor and his successors, during which by the help of a developed technique (photography, cinematography, glowing lamps on the limbs of the worker, etc.) the motions of workers were examined in every detail, showed how unfinished are the methods of human physical labour. The classical example is the Gilbreth study of bricklaying, where the movements were reduced from 18 to 5 and the daily output per worker was increased from 1,000 bricks to 2,700. The art of bricklaying has been known for centuries; the systematic study of about twenty years nevertheless resulted in tripling the productivity of the bricklayer.

The question arises whether studies of this kind can be of any use in agriculture. In that occupation, as in so many others, it has been observed that several workers at the same job seldom

[1] STEDING : *loc. cit.*, p. 813.

[2] W. J. MALDEN : *Physical Culture in Farm Work. A Systematic Training for Workers on the Land.* London, Vinton, not dated. 92 pp.

make the same movements, or at the same time[1]. There would appear then to be a field for observation.

The simple method employed by Taylor himself, namely, observation of the cleverest worker, seems easily applicable on every large farm. Steding gives beet work as an example. It will be found that it is not always the strongest person who obtains the best results; often the weaker person is more successful by reason of his or her better adjusted movements. The same details as Taylor noted when examining shovel work, namely, the location of the worker relative to the work, the best attitude of the body and the feet, the best distance between the hands on the shovel handle, etc., must be investigated in order to find out how to construct a movement preferable to that which is at present employed. If it is found, for example, that backward hoeing is superior to forward hoeing, only backward hoeing must be tolerated for the future. The extension of the commoner agricultural operations all over the world is so great that even the most trivial economies should be worth while.

Better results are of course obtained when such motion studies are carried out scientifically. A few examples will be quoted of results obtained at Pommritz where, for instance, various operations for the harvesting of grains have been examined. Thus some of the methods of plaiting bands for the sheaves (mostly in the field) in use in Germany have been examined. One method (not much known in Germany, by the way) proved to be definitely superior to the others. Giving the index of 100 to the output obtained by this method, three very common methods got the indexes 78, 62, and 58 respectively. Five ways of gathering up the sheaf and binding it in its own straw were also studied and also proved to differ distinctly from each other in the time they took. A female worker, who was generally considered very clever and quick, took 40 seconds to gather up and bind a sheaf in its own straw. After having been taught the method which had proved to be the best, and after one day's training, she took only 30 seconds[2]. The placing of the basket for loading potatoes on top of a pair of steps which had been specially constructed to fit the cart for another purpose, instead of in the cart beside or behind the loader, resulted in the elimination of a tiresome turning movement of the body[3].

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[1] Cf. SEEDORF : *op. cit.*, p. 4.
[2] Prof. DERLITZKI and Dr. WEBER, in *Die Landarbeit*, June 1924.
[3] Prof. DERLITZKI, in *Die Landarbeit*, Sept. 1926.

But even the advocates of Taylorism admit that the possibility of successful motion studies is far more limited in agriculture than in industry[1]. In the first place, nearly all work dealing with animals, and a good deal of work dealing with the care of plants, must be excluded. In the second place, the variation of conditions — weather, season, soil, quantity and quality of crops — is much greater and more disconcerting in agriculture than in industry. On the other hand, and this is an important consideration, it may often be possible to apply results obtained in industry almost directly to agriculture; shovel work, for example, seems to be the same in both.

IV

In close connection with motion studies stands examination of the most suitable tools, i.e. experiments to find the best shape of tool, giving the highest output with the least effort. Again, very small alterations may effect large improvements. It is saving of labour that all handles, for instance, should be made to move in the same direction as the part of the machine which they control, screws should all turn the same way, or the thread be indicated by an arrow, and screws and spare parts be standardised, etc.

This standardisation of tools and machines, which has made rapid progress in mechanical industry, is no doubt much needed in agriculture[2]. But will it be possible to find the really best form of agricultural implements? Is not the great variety of agricultural tools which exists the result of different local conditions? It has been estimated that over 600 different tools are used in Germany alone for potato lifting. At the Königsberg agricultural exhibition in the year 1925 47 entirely different rakes were shown. A map was exhibited giving the distribution of various forms of rake throughout Germany; it resembled a political map of the Thirty Years' War[3]. Different implements are sometimes the product of different races or habits. A curious little instance is quoted. In Baden, north of the Murg, there lives a Frankish population; south of the river, an Allemanic. The agricultural conditions in

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[1] W. Lüders: *Die Erhöhung der landwirtschaftlichen Arbeitsleistungen durch Anwendung des Taylor-Systems* (Berlin, Parey, 1924), p. 8; Seedorf: *op. cit.*, p. 11; Steding: *loc. cit.*, p. 814.

[2] *Die Landarbeit*, Oct. 1924.

[3] *Idem*, June 1925.

the two districts are identical, but the Allemans turn their hay with a wooden fork, while the rest of Baden uses a rake[1]. Seedorf seems to be right when he states that the cutting of rye and wheat on small farms in southern Germany cannot be so different from the same work in northern Germany as to justify the big difference in the scythes used : some forms must be superior to others.

Yet one best type can hardly be found for each tool. Geographical differences in tool usage often have their base in different agricultural conditions. Steding underlines this fact[2]. Moreover, while there seems in that case to be a wide field for improvement, it is important to note that improvement will not necessarily mean, as might be inferred from the preceding paragraph, decrease in the number of forms in use. On the contrary, there may even be an increase. For it is often the case that, while numberless different rakes are used on different farms, on any particular farm the same rake is used for quite different operations, for some of which another form would perhaps be much more suitable[3]. To have the best tools for each operation will mean a greater capital investment. The question is far from being solved merely by construction of the best implements.

In practice, the best immediate improvement would perhaps be effected by popularisation of good existing forms of tools and also of minor improvements. Notes on such subjects are, of course, to be found scattered throughout agricultural periodicals, though probably agricultural shows — especially travelling shows — are in some ways a more efficient form of propaganda. The concentration of written information in a small special periodical with illustrations, as is done in Germany[4], would appear a good plan. The descriptions are more systematic and complete, and of better quality, and the reader no doubt receives a training on the whole subject.

Again, as in motion study, there is a good deal which might be borrowed or adapted from mechanical industry or other trades. It has been asked why, for instance, agricultural workers should use a scoop with the handle extending outside, instead of the easier and more efficient scoop employed by the miller and the baker, where the handle extends inside, over the body of the scoop

[1] *Idem*, Feb. 1926.
[2] Steding, in *Die Landarbeit*, Dec. 1924.
[3] Seedorf : *op. cit.*, p. 11.
[4] *Die Landarbeit*.

itself.[1] And for shovelling beets, is it not at least probable that a shovel with a capacity of 9½ kilograms, the weight which Taylor found best for shovelling ore, might not here be the best too[2]?

The judgment of experience is once more perhaps not the right judgment, and scientific experimental investigation would give new results. Even a preliminary investigation on a farm, conducted on careful lines, may be of great use[3]. But when the conditions are complicated it must be left to a scientific institution to do the necessary research work, if only because implement studies are almost inseparable from motion studies.

It is the intention of the Pommritz Institute to carry out a systematic examination of agricultural tools in all the various forms which are found in Germany. Their great number makes these studies extremely difficult. In the field only a rough grouping of tools can be attempted and extreme forms eliminated. More detailed study must be carried out under experimental conditions[4]. Investigation so far undertaken into the form of rakes has resulted in the construction of a rake which seems to be superior to other *existing* forms. Scythes have also been examined, and as a result of detailed sugar-beet harvest studies a beet-lifting machine has been constructed which has been successful[5].

At the Masaryk Institute at Prague investigation has been made, under conditions excluding disturbance by other factors, of the different resistances offered by the soil to the penetration of the solid and of the pierced spade[6].

V

Tool and motion studies alike have to be carried out as output and time studies, i.e. the values of various motions and various tools have to be compared with each other in relation *either* to the amount of output produced per time unit, *or* to the amount of time required per output unit. But besides being an aid to tool and

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[1] *Die Landarbeit*, June 1925.

[2] STEDING : *loc. cit.* (*Landwirtschaftliche Jahrbücher*), p. 810.

[3] Such an investigation on the best shape, size, and weight of spades for shovelling grain is described in *Die Landarbeit*, Oct. 1925.

[4] Prof. DERLITZKI, in *Die Landarbeit*, July 1924.

[5] *Der Land- u. Forstwirtschaftliche Arbeitgeber*, 30 Nov. 1924.

[6] Paper read by J. RACEK at the International Congress on the Scientific Organisation of Labour held in Brussels in October 1925.

motion studies time studies have a value in themselves in two directions.

In the first place, the most suitable period of time from the point of view of efficiency — what may be called optimum time — has to be found for working, and also the optimum distribution of work and rest within the working day. Distribution covers more than this ; it also covers the best relations between the single periods of uninterrupted motion and the pauses separating them — in other words, the best pace for work ; for just as there exists an optimum relation between work and rest, so there also exists an optimum relation between the single motion-complex and the pause which elapses between that and the starting of the next series of motions. In the following section we shall see what is ideally the best way of approaching this difficult question. In practice the only possible way has hitherto been to measure the effect of the distribution of work and rest, and the effect of speed, on output.

To arrive at optimum time Taylor very carefully examined the time needed for each single motion ; by adding these he found the minimum time necessary for the whole motion-complex, and then proceeded to find the best ascertainable figure for supplementary time, i.e. for the pauses between the motion-complexes, etc. It may at once be stated that similar studies are impossible in agriculture ; conditions of work are not sufficiently constant. In manufacturing industry the work often remains constantly in the same place, the material treated is homogeneous, etc. In agriculture it is not so. The character of the soil varies from one part to another, the number of plants to a square foot changes, and so on. Larger units must therefore be chosen, but even when the problem has to be treated in this more elementary way, it seems still possible to obtain valuable results.

In agriculture Steding thinks it possible to classify operations according to their type, duration, and liability to cause fatigue, and then, on this classification, to fix a certain percentage of supplementary time which should be sufficient, when added to the net time taken for the operation, to make up optimum time.

There is a second direction — and it is a very important one — in which time studies have a positive value in themselves, and not merely as a register for motion or tool studies. This is the simple substantiation of the actual time (as distinguished from any question of optimum time) used for an operation. The problem is to discover not what time ought to be taken but what time habitually is taken when work is carried on at a good normal speed. Such

time studies are indispensable with a view both to a more rational wage system and to a more rational organisation of the farm; they are, in fact, the fundamental base for scientific management in agriculture. Indeed, the simple substantiation of actual time taken for operations is at present, and must for a long time remain, the most feasible object of time studies in agriculture.

Here again the employment of larger units than in manufacturing industry will be necessary. But the use of larger units tempts to the use of rough-and-ready methods. The operations must be properly divided into their component parts. It is of no use to know that it took three men 55 minutes to load a cart with manure, drive to the field and empty the cart and return to the farm, if calculations are subsequently to be applied to a field placed at another distance from the farm. It would be necessary to know exactly how much time was needed for loading the cart, how much for driving to the field with the loaded cart, how much to unload it, how much to drive back again with the empty cart. Only thus will it be possible to make calculations for fields at other distances, always assuming that the work is carried out with the same number of men and in the same way. Further, all the conditions under which the work is carried out and which may have an influence must be carefully studied, e.g. the weather, the condition of the manure, of the roads, of the field, etc. The same studies must be made under varying conditions, so that effects can be calculated exactly and a computation of the necessary corrections arrived at.

When the units chosen for observation represent net work time, the supplementary time needed for turning from one part of the operation to another and for covering inevitable small disturbances must also be found. Farmers hitherto applying time studies have often been content with estimates on this point[1], but a more systematic study is quite possible. At Pommritz the time used for hoeing each row of beets and the time lost before starting the next row was noted. The percentage of the latter (supplementary time) to the former (operation time) was found to be 4.3 per cent[2]. It is believed that this figure may be considered as more or less constant for similar working conditions. It should be possible to establish this result and use it, thus avoiding further laborious observations on this point.

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[1] See below, p. 400.

[2] P. Hesse: *Die Bestimmungen landwirtschaftlicher Arbeitsleistungen mit Hilfe von Arbeitsstudien*, p. 47. Berlin, 1925.

Perhaps it will also be possible through studies at an experimental station to measure the effect of different accidental factors, e.g. the number of beets per acre, so that single farms can use these results for adjusting the time-scales drawn up in a year when, for instance, the crop was thinner.

The experiments on the hoeing of beets at Pommritz, instead of only substantiating actual supplementary time, could have been enlarged to find optimum supplementary time and in this way enter into the more detailed type of time studies as defined in the opening paragraphs of this section. The optimum relation can also be obtained by changing the size of the unit of work in a way which is easy in agriculture; e.g. the length of the row of beet to be hoed without interruption may be extended. Experiments at Pommritz showed that in draught work with horses the output per hour increased the longer it was possible to drive without turning. This is easy to understand, because the turning with horses and machinery is notoriously a long and unproductive operation. But it is interesting to note that the opposite rule would perhaps seem to govern manual work. The experiments are complicated, and in spite of having been continued for several years have not yet led to any definite result[1]. It might look as though the two rules mentioned would result in contradictory demands on the topography of the farm, but in the case of manual work it is always possible to split the field into convenient sections as required.

The difficulties of undertaking time studies in agriculture are many, as will easily be understood. If the results which may be obtained promise to be somewhat elementary, it must be remembered that in an industry where time measurement of operations has hitherto been almost nil, even initial computations may have a surprising practical value.

VI

Motion studies, tool studies, and time studies have above been treated quite separately, though in fact they are intimately linked up with each other and are only various aspects of the same problem namely, the best relation between labour and its task. The separate study of motion, tools, and time is, however, general throughout the literature of Taylorism and may find its explanation in the one-sided way in which the relation between labour and its task

[1] *Berichte über Landarbeit*, Vol. I, p. 16.

has often been looked upon, without regard to the possible bad effects to the worker caused by the working methods demanded. In opposition to this private and economic point of view stands the wish of society — to get the maximum output of labour not during a certain period but during the whole life of the human being producing labour. This cannot be fulfilled unless regard be had to his physical condition.

It is evident that the demand for sparing the organism can lead to just the same extreme as the demand for utmost utilisation. The golden mean would be, instead of demanding maximum output, to demand optimum output, i.e. maximum output with the use of minimum energy. What must be found is consequently the fatigue caused by the task performed.

We have already touched on the fatigue problem when under time studies the distribution of rest and motion during the work was dealt with. It is obvious that Taylor also had to pay attention to the fact that an over-tired worker often does more damage than good work. From the more social point of view which we are now applying, not only time studies but also motion and tool studies are fatigue studies in their relation to the human being. Once this is acknowledged, however, the engineer or the agriculturalist ceases to be the proper person to treat these questions : it must be left to the physiologist to find the principal laws.

It is possible to undertake direct fatigue studies by measuring through respirators the amount of carbon dioxide breathed out during work. Such studies are carried out at various physiolcgical institutions under experimental conditions. Studies of this kind demand much time, and as they have only recently been started the results are still small. Professor Atzel, of the Kaiser Wilhelm Institute for Physiological Studies in Berlin, who has principally been followed in this section, thinks that it is already possible to give hints which have a scientific basis and which may be of help during practical execution of work[1]. Among such hints may be mentioned :

(1) the strong muscle groups should be used for heavy work, the weak groups for easy work ;

(2) all static work, e.g. keeping a burden still at arm's length, must be avoided as far as possible ;

(3) loads must be carried so that their centre of gravity is vertically above the supporting plane base of the body.

[1] Prof. Atzel, in *Die Landarbeit*, July, Aug., and Oct. 1925.

These rules are common to all labour, consequently also to agricultural labour, but, of course, " theoretical results must be made useful to practical farming through suitable mediating institutes ". Thus Professor Derlitzki notes, in commenting on the uncomfortable position described above of the women engaged in potato-sorting work, that " this so-called static work demands, as we know from the works of Professor Atzel, a very great amount of power and energy, without any positive labour being executed "[1].

VII

The importance of psychological factors in influencing labour is not less than that of physiological factors. The farmer working on his own account knows that his will to work is stimulated through his direct interest, both financial and moral, in the result of his work. The paid worker, though pleasure in a good result is not without importance in his case also, has not the same financial interest in the results ; his interest lies in his own earning capacity. It follows that different forms of wage payment may have a different influence on his will to work.

The most common wage form in agriculture is the time wage. The period on which the time wage is based varies in agriculture from a year to an hour. The time wage does not directly evoke the will to work. When time rates are paid, there is no minimum amount of work or standard of efficiency formally indicated : any dereliction of duty is a matter of discipline or dismissal, and cannot be dealt with by means of reduction of earnings. The worker can only vary his earnings by striking a fresh bargain as to the number of hours to be worked or the rate per hour, day, week, or year ; this is, in effect, to enter on a fresh contract. Time wages are therefore fixed wages.

The same is the case with the task or job wage. The task or job wage is a fixed wage for a specified task or job. Whereas under time wages the time was specified and the job was not, under task or job wages the job is specified and the time is not. A good example of a task wage is that given to the shepherd for his tending of a certain number of sheep throughout the year. In the task or job wage there is a certain minimum standard of efficiency implied ; but again, as with time wages, a dereliction of duty is not punish-

[1] *Die Landarbeit*, Sept. 1926.

able by deduction from earnings, but only by discipline or dismissal. Exactly in the same way an excess of duty or zeal cannot be rewarded by an addition to earnings. This is so inconvenient, especially in the skilled work to which the task wage is often applied, that various indirect means are sought to remedy it. The most common are forms of reward which closely approach profit-sharing, such as the old system, still quite common, of allowing the shepherd to take so many lambs out of the increase of the flock, etc. Such rewards are really forms of payment by results superimposed on a fixed wage. They are premiums for special care at the work, but they differ from real payments by results in that they do not depend entirely on the efforts of the worker, but also on natural factors outside his influence.

This is usually not the case in payment by results, the simplest form of which is the piece wage. The two principal advantages of piece wages are, for the employer, that he does not pay more for a certain amount of work than he can calculate in advance, and, for the worker, that his wages advance in proportion to his output. Within the limits of possible effort the worker is able of his own volition to increase his earnings, and the mere possibility of earning more will quicken his pace.

Payment by results in the form of piece rates causes the earnings of the worker to depend on the output only; he gains the same whether he uses two or three hours to finish, say, 10 units of his task. What Taylor wanted, however, was to get the worker to work at a speed determined by means of time, motion, and tool studies. For this purpose he arranged the wages rates so that the worker obtained higher earnings the nearer he came to executing his work within this ascertained period. The difference between straightforward payment of piece rates and such systems is that, under piece rates, the worker is remunerated for *all* extra effort surpassing the normal effort put forth under time rates, while, under a Taylor system, he gets no real advantage from his extra effort until *after* he has already reached a certain performance, which performance often exceeds that at which he would have stopped under pure piece rates.

There is no occasion to examine here how Taylor principles have been carried out in manufacturing practice. Conditions in agriculture differ too much from those in manufacturing industry, and in any case examples from agriculture explain themselves.

Of all improvements proposed by the advocates of Taylorism in agriculture payment by results has been received with the greatest

interest. Piece rates, of course, have long been known to agriculture, but in general their application has been rather limited. In his book on the science of farm organisation Aeroboe has a chapter on wage forms, where he discusses carefully piece rates and also various forms of premium or bonus : for example, a bonus for the quality of the work, for economy with raw materials, for good upkeep of machinery and tools. But he considers the possibility of applying piece rates rather limited and does not think it possible to apply premiums as a means to augment the output of labour : " they are *ex hypothesi* remuneration for special care at the work [1]". This was written in 1920, but the point of view expressed is not shared to-day by many employers in German agriculture. To-day the tendency is to introduce payment by results wherever possible[2].

Apart from simple piece rates, the form of payment by results most under discussion is the "premium task wage", i.e. an extra wage given as a premium for a task performed. The worker is guaranteed his usual daily earnings ; but he gets an extra premium for performing a certain amount of work fixed beforehand. The forms in which this extra wage or premium can be paid are various. In some cases the premium can be given as more spare time to the worker ; when he has completed a certain amount of work (his " task ") he is free. This advantage is often appreciated by smallholders doing paid work for others or by female workers with homes. At the Pommritz Institute, where payment by results in various forms has proved its efficiency in augmenting the output of labour[3], the spare-time premium has been given to women plaiting straw bands, with the result that, instead of producing 300 pieces in 4 hours, they produced 360 pieces in 2½ hours, after which they were free[4]. But as a rule the premium is paid in money. Methods of fixing it are best illustrated by an example.

The worker starts with his ordinary time wage for eight hours' hoeing. If he gets, say, at least 30 ares done in the eight hours,

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[1] F. Aeroboe : *Allgemeine Landwirtschaftliche Betriebslehre*, pp. 150-179. Berlin, Parey, 1920.

[2] In a resolution adopted by the Association of German Employers in Agriculture and Forestry in May 1924, the Association called on its constituent bodies to pay special attention to the formulation of principles governing payment of wages, and, with a view to raising quality and intensity of performance, to give consideration to a possible system of piece wages and bonuses, whether in money or in kind, additional to time rates, etc. (*Industrial and Labour Information*, Vol. XI, No. 7, p. 302.)

[3] Cf. for examples Dr. Weber : " Das Pensum der Landarbeiter ", in *Landwirtschaftliche Jahrbücher*, LXI. Band, Heft 4.

[4] Communication to the International Labour Office.

he is paid an extra amount, say, one mark; he is then earning a *fixed premium*. Or he may get extra payment for every 5 ares he does beyond the thirty, say, at 50 pfennigs per 5 ares; he is then earning a *flat-rate premium*. If it is arranged that he shall get 50 pfennigs extra for the first 5 ares after his original 30 (ares 31-35), 1 mark for the next 5 after that (ares 36-40), and so on, he is earning a *progressive-rate premium*. Both flat and progressive rate premiums may be made *sliding* by paying broken fractions of 5 ares at the actual rate fixed for those 5 ares had they been completed.

In view, however, of the difficulty of finding the exact amount of work to be demanded under the fixed-premium system, a scale of some kind is preferable for both the employer and the worker. It will be seen that under a sliding scale the worker is bound to get more for every stroke he puts into the ground (though only after a certain amount of work has been completed; herein lies the difference from the simple piece-rate system). An advantage of the progressive scale is that higher payment is given for greater fatigue, in harmony with the general rule that fatigue is cumulative. Moreover, payment increases as it becomes less necessary to the worker, which satisfies the well-known principle that the value of a wage supplement varies inversely as the total wage. Basic piece wages can themselves be made progressive and sliding, but it is preferable to calculate premiums separately in order that they may be paid in that form and without distinction both to permanent resident workers and to temporary day workers. The incorporation of the premium in the basic wage is apt to lead to dissatisfaction, as calculation and deduction have to be made of the estimated value of the resident worker's permanent wages, which, as part of his earnings are usually in kind, is a tiresome and often disputed operation.

Systems of payment by results, and perhaps more especially of payment by premium, are particularly well adapted to those situations which so often occur in agriculture when it is important that a quantity of work be done with a rush. In theory the premium sliding scale might be limitless. This may be an advantage where the principal point is to utilise the weather conditions, or where the value of the work declines considerably if it is not done as quickly as possible, as is the case with harvest work. At other times the risk of deterioration in the quality of the work when carried out too fast must set a limit. This is easily arranged by stopping the sliding scale at a point above which experience has

shown that it does not pay to force the pace. Where work is done with horse labour it is especially important to have such an arrangement in order to prevent over-driving of the horses. It is also possible to reject work which does not reach a certain standard (e.g. an improperly filled bin of hops), or even to pay another premium on quality. In the first case it is very advisable only to reject work after hearing the opinion of representatives of the workers. Also it is important to control the work at an early stage so as to avoid all doubt as to the right way of carrying it out[1].

In general, it is all-important not to lose the confidence of the workers. The introduction of any system of payment by results is often not easy, and the worker may regard it with mistrust; justifiably so, when it is introduced without complete certainty as to scales and rates. It is therefore necessary to work out details very carefully beforehand. Time studies, as described above, must be used to ascertain the required output, and it should be remembered that the effect of premiums depends also on the relative part they make up of total earnings.

Among the advantages of payment on the lines of the Taylor system may be counted the fact that workers are induced by a direct financial interest to adapt themselves to working methods ascertained by motion and tool studies to which they have hitherto been hostile. Their eyes are also opened to improvements which they can themselves propose. Lüders mentions the actual case of a harvester, who, under the influence of new systems of payment putting a premium on speed, suddenly discovered that his reaper must be at once altered to enable him to drive nearer to the crop, having never found anything to cavil at in it before[2].

The most extensive experiments on the introduction of payment by results in German agriculture have been those carried out by the Association of Employers in Agriculture and Forestry in Silesia. The Association has set up a special Committee for the study of farm management, which has published the results obtained on 44 farms where payment by results had been used on various occasions. The publication[3] indicates the increased output of work and the extra gain, as compared with the previous time-wage system on the basis of a 10-hour working day. The experiments cover all

[1] L. W. Ries: *Erziehung zu Arbeitswillen und Arbeitsfreude in der Landarbeit*, p. 43. Berlin, Parey, 1926.

[2] Lüders: *op. cit.*, p. 22.

[3] *Zusammenstellung von Leistungslöhnen in der schlesischen Landwirtschaft*, ausgearbeitet von Dr. Georg Feige. Breslau; first edition 1925, fourth edition 1926.

kinds of work throughout the year. The purpose of the publication is to show the actual effect of payment by results, without claiming that thereby other possible systems are excluded. It is not to be expected that a publication of this kind, which depends for its information on observations made by practical farmers, should have altogether the character of a scientific analysis. It is interesting to see how the fourth edition has improved in comparison with the first. Some of the improvements were apparently the result of a meeting of the Committee at which criticisms and wishes as to further information desired were put forward by the farmers present[1].

The fourth edition includes a general description of each farm, but not of the fields on which the experiments were carried out. Soil, weather, crop conditions, organisation of the work, length of rest pauses, are not always stated. All results are stated to have been recalculated on the basis of 10 hours' work. It is not indicated, however, for how many hours the actual observations continued. The present state of our knowledge of the course of intensity of a day's work does not seem sufficient to allow such recalculations to be made safely. The output of the original time wages, it is stated, would also have to be very carefully ascertained; the exact way in which this was done is not, however, indicated.

It would appear[2] that the Association recommends the employment of the same method which Ries[3] thinks useful in practical agriculture, namely, to find the time needed for the single elements of the work by means of time studies and to add a supplement for small pauses and disturbances during the work. The length of the supplement is, however, found by estimation and not by exact observation. In this way the output of work which may be expected per day without extraordinary pressure can be ascertained.

It is not only in Silesia that interest in payment by results has been aroused. *Die Landarbeit* contains many contributions from practical farmers who have allowed various kinds of work to be carried out on that system, especially on a system of premium task wages.

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[1] *Protokoll der Zweiten Sitzung des betriebswirtschaftlichen Ausschusses beim Land- u. Forstwirtschaftlichen Arbeitgeberverband für die Provinz Schlesien am 23. September 19.5 in Breslau.* 1925.

[2] Cf. the *Protokoll* mentioned in the preceding note; also No. 2 of the *Schriftenreihe* of the Committee, containing instructions to the managing staff on a large estate to acquaint them with the system of payment by results.

[3] L. W. Ries: *Leistung und Lohn in der Landarbeit.* Berlin, Parey, 1924.

VIII

It is not only his interest in the remuneration offered that influences the will to work of the employee. Other psychological factors are of importance. Steding places the psychological factors influencing the will to work in three groups : (*a*) economic; (*b*) social ; and (*c*) instinctive[1]. In addition to the economic motive there are many social and other motives which the employer can release and thereby stimulate the will to work of his employees.

It is of value if the worker can get the impression that the farmer himself is a man who knows his business and is able to organise the work on his farm ; more especially must the worker feel that the farmer economises the worker's labour, that he is not given work which is valueless, or which appears to him valueless because its meaning has not been explained to him. But more can be done. Lüders points out[2] that the sole fact of demonstrating to the worker what ought to be his normal output (found by help of time studies) very often increases speed. Still better is it when the task is specified, so that the worker knows what he must complete. On the other hand, Ries[3], commenting on the setting of tasks on a farm, draws attention to the mental depression which accompanies a task which, even though definite, seems to be endless, in comparison with the reactions aroused by one where the progress of the work can be easily ascertained. Ries recommends that the farm worker's task should not be fixed for a whole week, or even for a whole day, but should preferably be allotted for portions of a day. The worker can then easily control his own work and in particular can, after working at piece rates, estimate in the morning what he will be able to earn during the day if he works at an even speed[4]. Ries further argues that it is important to arrange work in such a way as to finish it off at once, and not first to perform one operation all over the field and then to advance to another. For instance, when spreading manure it is better to finish the strewing at once and not to let the men go over the whole field once and then have to go over it again for the final strewing ; such an organisation of the work appears to the author to be a depressing one. " We must be on our guard ", he states, " against allowing the work to roll

[1] Steding : *loc. cit.*, p. 793.
[2] Lüders : *op. cit.*, p. 9.
[3] Ries : *Erziehung zu Arbeitswillen und Arbeitsfreude in der Landarbeit*, p. 57.
[4] *Ibid.*, p. 44.

on, uniform and endless. On the contrary, it should be split up into easily recognisable portions."

Weber points out that the majority of workers can only work when they have definite tasks to do, and that the more simple-minded a worker is, the easier he finds his work if his day is divided into portions of time[1]. Professor Derlitzki stresses the fact that to expect a good result from task fixing, tasks must be made as brief as possible, and lays stress on the increase of output which arises from the periodical self-repeating task[2]. Such determination of tasks can, of course, only be undertaken after exact time studies. A false estimate does much damage. If the task is fixed too large the worker gets depressed: if too small, he will lower his speed below what he could easily accomplish. In other words, good or bad organisation on the part of the management will also indirectly profoundly affect the will to work on the part of the worker[3].

Another psychological factor of importance is the presence of several workers working within reach of each other. No experiments as to the best distance between workers on a farm have as yet been carried out. If they work too close to each other, general conversation will ensue which will distract the attention of all. On the other hand, the distance should not be too great. Workers, like other human beings, do not like to be alone. It has been observed at Pommritz that workers working at time rates dislike being too far apart. When working at piece rates, on the other hand, it has often been found advisable to place them in such a way as to make it difficult for them to watch one another's progress. In potato lifting, for instance, it is recommended to allot not rows, but a square area, as it is more difficult to judge from a distance how far another worker has got on[4].

The German authors on scientific management on farms deal much with the psychological factors which, perhaps unconsciously on the part of the workers, influence their efficiency. Steding[5] quotes Aeroboe, who, in his *Science of Farm Organisation*, says that the art of agriculture consists as to nine-tenths in the handling of people. Ries deals largely with psychological questions in his book, and has elsewhere[6] defended the introduction of works councils

[1] WEBER : *loc. cit.*, p. 553.
[2] *Die Landarbeit*, June 1925.
[3] STEDING : *loc. cit.*, p. 797.
[4] WEBER : *loc. cit.*, p. 572.
[5] STEDING : *loc. cit.*, p. 806.
[6] *Die Landarbeit*, April 1925.

on the farm[1] in order to attain the confidence of the workers in introducing scientific management. To carry out experiments in this particular sphere will often be impossible, but something might be done by a systematic stocktaking of the relations between employer and employed, with a view to finding out whether they are not, in fact, old-fashioned and out-of-date and whether changes could not be introduced which would increase the worker's self-respect and eliminate feelings hampering his will to work. It may be remarked that all that is commonly known as personnel work and "human relations" is included in the programme of the Pommritz Institute[2].

IX

Experiments carried out at the Pommritz Institute have shown how important it is that work which has to be carried out by several workers, either simultaneously or in collaboration, should be distributed in the right way among them. When, for example, several workers are employed on the same field they can be employed as gang, team, or column, or, alternatively, as individuals. In the *gang* the workers execute the job in common, all doing the same kind of work, but the amount of work to be carried out by each individual is not specified. In the *team* workers at different processes act together in such a way that the progress of the whole job depends on the progress of each part thereof; an example is the spreading of manure by four persons, two doing the rougher spreading first, and two following on to do the finer. The *column* is a group where each worker is given the same amount of work, and is ordered to keep pace. *Individual* work explains itself.

This is the classification adopted by Weber in an article in which he publishes the results of experiments at Pommritz[3]. His conclusions are as follows.

Gang work is to be avoided. It is difficult to control the single worker, and, if work is done on time rates, there is nothing to stimulate him; even where work is paid at piece rates, the influence of the idle on the industrious worker is most unfavourable. All

[1] Germany is one of the few countries where works councils exist in agriculture. Cf. *Industrial and Labour Information*, Vol. XV, No. 4, p. 165.

[2] *Berichte über Landarbeit*, Vol. I.

[3] WEBER: *loc. cit.*

comparisons between gang work and individual work are in favour of the latter. In an experiment with women workers, when the ordinarily slowest worker was put on individual work and the rest on gang work, the output of the single worker actually surpassed the average output of the gang workers by 27 per cent.

Team work can vary greatly in the ways in which it is arranged. We shall return to this question. Weber has examined the differences between team work as commonly used in Germany and the doing of the same job split up as individual work; the results of the experiments were generally in favour of individual work. It is, for instance, very common in German agriculture for the binding of the crop laid aside by the reaper to be done by two persons, one placing the strawbands and gathering the sheaf together, the other doing the looping. An experiment at Pommritz showed that the looper accomplished 91 per cent. more work than the other. Consequently, it is a terrible waste of labour to force him to keep pace with the other worker, who is even possibly disturbed in his work by his unoccupied com ade[1]. While in this example the looper was prevented from working at full speed because the more occupied worker preceded him, in an experiment on frame drying of timothy grass the same effect was produced, though the more occupied worker followed. Two gangs were formed wor ing together as a team, one gang collecting the grass into small heaps the other carrying it to, and putting it on, the frame; the result was an improvement in the output of 63 per cent. over what had been attained when all had worked together as a single gang. But it was further proved that the gang collecting the grass and in fact not dependent on the other gang would have been able to do their work in half the time, only that it was impossible to prevent them from keeping to the slower pace of the following gang[2].

Column work is, on the whole, preferred by Weber to both gang and team work. Column work is easier to control, and permits the establishment of a pace which will be somewhere between that of the most lazy and the most industrious worker, whereas the pace both of gang and of team work has a tendency to be fixed at the speed of the slowest worker in the group. The selection of nearly equally speeded workers for column work is, however,

[1] *Ibid.*, p. 558.

[2] Dr. PUVOGEL, of the Section for Agricultural Labour Studies at the Agricultural Central Union, Insterburg, in *Die Landarbeit*, Oct. and Nov. 1925.

of obvious importance. Experiments at Pommritz showed the efficiency of three harvesters as 100, 120 and 182; yet these workers had often been employed in the same column. To allow of sufficiently careful selection small columns are the best. "Columns which are arranged without care, as is the most common practice, can only produce work of an amount considerably below what could have been done had each worker worked individually. Through careful selection of persons with the same efficiency, and arrangement in small columns, one can come nearer to the same output as that of individual work[1]." At Pommritz an experiment showed that when the efficiency of individual work was calculated as 100, that of a good selected column was 90, of an ordinary column 75, and a bad one 42 only[2].

Individual work permits the worker to make full use of his capacities without reference to his fellow-workers. However, where work is paid at time rates, each worker is apt to note the speed of his fellows, and under these circumstances individual work, performed in company, begins to be rather like column work.

The advantages of individual work are too well known to need emphasis. The interest of the worker in his own specially assigned job (an interest which, on a farm, may be cultivated to a high degree if arrangements are made to assign succeeding operations on the same crop or area to the same worker) is a point to be noted. One of the advantages of individual work is that it gives opportunity to use the full power of each worker, which is not possible either in gang or in column work. Yet theoretically it should seem possible so to organise team work that all workers in the team have an even amount of work to do (due regard being had to the ability of each), and thus to obtain some of the well-known advantages of division of labour. When team work at the Pommritz experiments proved inferior to individual work, it was very probably due to the fact that the examples of team work examined did not represent the best ascertainable form of collaboration between workers for that particular job. A more rational form of collaboration might have proved superior to individual work. Thus even at Pommritz the output of women setting potatoes was greatly increased when, instead of fetching the potatoes

[1] Weber: *loc. cit.*, p. 570.
[2] *Berichte über Landarbeit*, Vol. I, p. 33.

themselves from the cart, they had them brought to their side by a special person[1]. Where work can only be done in collaboration, the finding of a good form of team work is highly essential.

In many cases of team work in agriculture there is neither a definitely needed number of workers nor an absolutely given form of collaboration ; both the size of the group, and their methods, then come to be too often a matter of guesswork. It should, however, be possible, by means of systematic experiments, to discover both the most suitable number of persons for a given task and the best succession of the series of movements, to use the terminology of Steding[2].

Steding discusses, by way of example, a granary job. Two workers are to sack and weigh off 100 quarters of rye ; they are to fill the sacks, put them on the scales, weigh, and bind them. For the binding only one person is necessary ; if they deal with each sack separately and finish it off, the other will be unoccupied during the binding, or will only sweep up the lost grain, which need not be done after each filling. An alternative method would be to find out how many shovelfuls of grain fill a sack, fill all the sacks with the number of shovelfuls required, weigh all, and then bind all. If it be found that one of these two methods is superior " it would be foolish to allow the other to be used at all "[3]. Or suppose that a larger number of workers are available : Steding presumes seven as a good number (for the handling of large quantities). Number 1 holds the sack, numbers 2 and 3 fill it, one from the left and the other from the right, number 4 puts the sack on the scales and helps number 5 in weighing, number 6 binds and number 7 carries the sack away ; the sweeping of the floor can be done from time to time by numbers 2 and 3[4].

The number of workers on a farm being limited, it will perhaps not always be possible to put the optimum number of workers on a job ; nevertheless, by the help of studies on job organisation, it should be possible, given a certain number of workers, to find the best distribution of operations between them, or alternatively to discover the ideally best number for some future occasion.

A further step is when, instead of studying a single operation, a series of operations belonging together are considered as a whole.

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[1] *Illustrierte Landwirtschaftliche Zeitung*, 14 March 1924. Berlin.
[2] STEDING : *loc. cit.*, p. 816.
[3] *Ibid.*, p. 860.
[4] *Ibid.*

Such studies also have been carried out at Pommritz. The best result hitherto has been a new procedure in sugar-beet harvesting, the principal innovation being the topping of the beets while still in the soil[1] (cf. also what was said above about the beet-lifting machine, p. 390). The method has generally been well received. While it is being perfected at Pommritz, it is also being systematically investigated in other parts of Germany so as to get the broadest possible base for an estimate of its usefulness[2].

X

It is obvious that the putting into practice in agriculture of the ideas of scientific management means new demands on the capacity of both worker and employer. A rational study of labour in agriculture must lead to the same conclusion as in manufacturing industries, that special work demands special qualifications, often of a kind which have hitherto been unknown. The presence of such qualifications in workers seeking employment is more and more verified by means of psychotechnical examinations and through vocational guidance of young persons. Seedorf has already pointed out the importance of vocational guidance in agriculture. The question is, can such a system be transferred to agriculture ? In manufacturing industry development in productive methods and division of labour took place simultaneously. The work of employed persons was split up into many separate operations, each to be carried out by one worker doing a few special movements. The necessary qualifications are ascertained, and their presence verified, with comparative ease. In agriculture each worker must be able to carry out many kinds of work differing according to the season, the time of day, the weather, etc. Ideally speaking, many qualifications are needed, and one could scarcely expect to find them combined in a single individual. Is it possible to say more than that the worker should be able-bodied and strong ?

To say this is to tend in the direction of exaggeration. It is true that a combination of qualities is required, but these combinations are of special definable types, according to the kind of work, Also it may be remarked that even if stable staff, cattlemen, pig-

[1] *Illustrierte Landwirtschaftliche Zeitung*, 22 May 1925.
[2] Steding, in *Die Landarbeit*, Aug. 1926.

keepers, etc. are required pretty frequently to carry out work other than their special work, yet it is their qualifications for their special duties, and not for their incidental duties, which determine their usefulness[1]. Ries (who, however, considers himself a layman on the subject) lays down that cattlemen must have a special talent for observation, be conscientious, and, if responsible for breeding, have a good memory for form. The driver of the self-binder must be able to fix his attention simultaneously on several things, which is a quality not invariably found in all workers. Such qualifications a trained psychologist is able to substantiate without difficulty.

Steding[2] has tried to draw up in a systematic way the qualifications which are desirable for (1) waggoners, (2) general field workers, (3) female agricultural workers, and (4) cattlemen. While Steding indicates several special qualifications in the case of the general agricultural worker, Ries indicates only one, namely, the ability to adjust oneself easily and quickly to the work; the variety of agricultural work makes this quality essential.

This capacity for quick adjustment may be designated as intelligence, and intelligence can be tested fairly easily by the psychologist, though the normal reading and writing tests employed are not practicable in the case of agricultural workers, who are not very ready with book or pen[3].

Ries supposes that it would be an advantage if the intelligent worker, using the word " intelligence " in the sense just indicated, could be employed in agriculture and the duller worker — the worker who thinks less quickly — in industry. He refers to the demonstrations of Bücher and Münsterberg that workers often prefer monotonous work, i.e. work carried out in a constantly repeated rhythm, and simultaneously to the opinion of H. Watts that it is not the most intelligent worker who prefers this kind of work. If this holds true, economic forces have hitherto been distributing workers as between agriculture and industry in a way which is exactly the opposite of that which would be most productive for society.

An investigation on practical lines has been undertaken by Professor Erismann of Bonn, on the request of the Rhenish Association for Rural Social Welfare and Home Care (*Rheinischer Verein*

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[1] Ries, in *Die Landarbeit*, Jan. 1925.
[2] *Loc. cit. (Landwirtschaftliche Jahrbücher)*, p. 786.
[3] Ries : *loc. cit.*

für ländliche Wohlfahrts- und Heimatspflege)[1]. The object was to discover the qualities needed in (1) the farmer himself, farming on a small, medium, or large scale, (2) the vineyarder, (3) the stock-breeder, (4) the cattleman, (5) the shepherd. A list of no less than 122 physical and mental qualifications was drawn up, and, with the help of the Director of Agricultural Schools in Westphalia, those required in each job were named. The results showed that agriculture is no exception to the general law that different jobs require different combinations of qualifications. A good stock-breeder will not necessarily make a good general farmer or farm manager, and a good farm manager will not necessarily turn out a good shepherd[2].

It is often feared that vocational guidance will deprive agriculture of more labour than is the case under present conditions. This is not certain. The report on public vocational guidance in Germany for 1924-1925 shows " an astonishingly high figure for the placing of youths in agriculture when it is remembered that vocational guidance is specially active in the big cities and industrial centres. The statement could even be substantiated that a considerable number of youths who originally wished to choose other careers have been won over to agriculture[3]. "

By the help of these methods it should prove possible to obtain better workers for agriculture, who will, moreover, feel themselves attracted towards agriculture both because of the more rational utilisation of their labour and because more highly developed wage systems will hold out the prospect of better earnings. It may be added that employers' requirements as to vocational education and training will also be raised to a higher level. The demand on the employer himself in the direction of ability to conduct his farm will rise automatically as the possibilities offered by scientific management come to be utilised. " What does it profit that the worker uses the best labour technique, the best attitude of body, the most practical grasps, and also works with all his might and with special industry, when the management has not provided favourable working conditions[4]?"

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[1] Prof. ERISMANN : " Zum Problem der ländlichen Berufsberatung u. Berufsauslese ", in *Landwirtschaftliche Jahrbücher*, LXII. Band, Heft 6.

[2] Details in the article cited.

[3] Dr. Käthe GAEBEL : " Die öffentliche Berufsberatung in Deutschland nach der Berufsberatungsstatistik, 1924-1925 ", in *Reichsarbeitsblatt*, No. 21, 1 June 1926, p. 367.

[4] Professor DERLITZKI, in *Die Landarbeit*, Dec. 1924.

Finally, the real use of all motion, tool, and time studies and of studies into the grouping of workers, etc. can only be realised when work is planned beforehand. The exact amount of work which it is possible to carry out in a day must be calculated ; it must also be decided how the work is to be organised, how many workers it demands, and also what members of the staff on the farm ought to do the work in order to be sure that the workers are given the job they are most qualified for ; and if, for instance, the work is done as column work, steps must be taken to secure that the column is as homogeneous as possible.

The planning *beforehand* of all work would appear an absolute *sine qua non*. It is an obvious waste of time to let the men stand round while the manager thinks over the work of the day. Many practical farmers will claim that they are so trained in the arrangement of work that they need no plan laid before them. But the better the training, the more easily and quickly the plan will be made, while the young and untrained farmer needs the plan badly until he has achieved the habit of distributing the work with an ease equal to that which the old farmer thinks he has acquired. " Nor are all farmers old and capable practitioners, and I have too often seen a farmer call his workers back just as they were setting off for their work, in order to give them another job to be carried out first[1]." In any case the farmer had better waste his own time beforehand than his men's.

It is the opinion of those who have studied the question that farm work should be planned at the writing desk and not in the yard. Paper and pen are better than mere memory, or rather are there in addition to memory. An indispensable aid should be the farm map, showing the position and area of all fields. The provision of an alternative plan for bad weather would appear obvious. Not only should all planning be done on paper, but all instructions should be given in writing, if the Taylor principles of the labour bureau are to be carried out fully. There is some difference of opinion whether such procedure is possible on the farm. Derlitzki presumes it impossible, but sees a useful education for the manager if he will consent to put down each man's work in writing in his own note-book[2] ; Seedorf points out that many farmers were already

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[1] Professor Derlitzki : *Das Taylorsystem und seine Anwendung in der Landwirtschaft*, p. 11. Vortrag gehalten in der Oekonomischen Gesellschaft in Sachsen zu Dresden, am 7. Januar 1921.

[2] *Ibid.*, p. 11.

using the practice in 1919[1]. Whatever instructions are given in writing should be complete, mentioning the amount of work, number and names of workers for each operation, arrangements such as column or group work, and the tools to be taken to the field. " Workers get no payment for thinking, but only for their labour[2]. "

Exact preparation of work makes exact control of its execution necessary, together with a complete statement of the results obtained to prove that the preparation has been a right one. The farmer must keep a detailed day journal of all work done on the farm, with indication of all the conditions under which it has been executed, number of workers, method of payment used, earnings gained, etc. The full future use of such notes and the carrying out of necessary supplementary studies is perhaps beyond the capacities even of the clever farmer. Methods for analysing farm labour will always be difficult and will always make special training desirable, but the same may be said of the application of other sciences to practical agriculture.

The solution has sometimes been not to make the farmer acquire special knowledge himself, but only to place it at his disposal. Thus in dairy-cattle testing societies an outside expert takes over the control of the cows on a series of farms in a way which could never be achieved by the individual farmer. The same method could be applied to scientific management on the farm. Lüders[3] proposes the creation of labour-testing associations providing experts who should call at each farm, say, once a week, control output, make time studies, fix scales for payment by results, and give general advice. In fact, experts for labour questions have already been engaged on some German farms[4].

XI

The purpose of this article has been to describe the new methods rather than to criticise them, and, above all, to put them into relation with some of the fundamental conditions governing the agricultural industry. It will have been observed that the various methods touched on do not all together form a real system. Never-

[1] Seedorf : *op. cit.*, p. 60.
[2] Lüders : *op. cit.*, p. 15.
[3] *Die Landarbeit*, Dec. 1925.
[4] *Idem*, May 1926.

theless, the connection between them is such as makes it reasonable to suppose that the same results will not be obtained unless they are applied more or less together; for instance, column work is more likely to be successful where the staff has been got together on a system of vocational selection.

Some idea as to their probable popularity may be gathered from the opinions of these who would have to apply them, both employers and workers. Mention has already been made of the work of the Association of Employers in Agriculture and Forestry of Silesia. At the eighth assembly, held in Breslau on 2 June 1926, of the German national organisation, the Federation of German Associations of Employers in Agriculture and Forestry, two papers were read, and the periodical of the Federation has fairly frequent articles on the science of farm management. German smallholders also seem to be favourable, expecting to obtain from scientific management and general technical improvements in agriculture relief from over-long hours and from the burden of excessive labour both for themselves and for their hired workers, and hail the new ideas as an advance towards freedom and dignity[1].

Among land workers' organisations a certain fear exists that the new methods will reduce the worker to a machine and that he will too often get little compensation for his increased efforts[2]. The attitude of the Social-Democratic Union of Agricultural Workers (*Deutscher Landarbeiterverband*) is expressed in the following passage:

> We are sincere friends of the science of farm management and therefore support the work at Pommritz. That is our standpoint in principle, but we must make some reservations. . . . We can only conceive the science of farm labour and the successful application of its results if the work is done in intimate collaboration with agricultural workers and their organisations. It would be intolerable were the farm worker to be looked on as the mere instrument of the farming enterprise. This is specially the case with the introduction of new payment systems. . . . In the hands of the employer who considers only his own personal advantage premium wages must lead to a great over-exploitation of human labour. Payments by results will always be supplementary to time wages. Collective agreements, covering a large district, and based on the time-wage principle, will retain their great importance. The worker must be prepared to regard the time wage as the basis for the maintenance of his labour power, and must have a minimum standard of existence . . . assured to him by means of such a wage. Premium wages, should they predominate, will destroy the healthy principle of

[1] *Westdeutsche Landwacht*, 25 March 1925.
[2] *Der Landarbeiter*, 1 April 1925.

the long-term contract in farming work. We repeat that the time wage must be the basic wage in agriculture, and payment by results only a complementary reward. Nor must payment by results be imposed, but always arrived at by agreement, the introduction of any such system making higher demands than usual on the workers' representatives, be their name works councillors or any other designation[1].

At a meeting of the officers of the branches of this Union held in Breslau in June 1926, a paper on payment by results was read by Dr. Feige, and a discussion took place in which the point was again made that the Union was not antagonistic to the principle so long as a minimum wage remained secured to the workers by collective agreement[2].

The opinion of the Central Union of Christian Agricultural Workers (*Zentralverband der christlichen Landarbeiter*) is similar[3].

Finally, official bodies have expressed themselves in the following resolution passed at the fifty-fourth assembly of the German Council of Agriculture (*Deutscher Landwirtschaftsrat*) :

> German agriculture follows with great interest the scientific investigations and practical experiments which are being carried out at the Pommritz Experimental Institute for the study of farm management, aiming at the simplification and improvement of farm management and wage systems. It sees in these investigations an important means of increasing the productive power of German agriculture.

The Council of Agriculture recommended that the Federal Government should encourage the progress of this young science and " in every way prove its interest by the offer of grants "[4].

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[1] *Idem*, 16 Oct. 1925.
[2] *Idem*, 16 June, 1926.
[3] *Die Rundschau*, 15 March 1925 and 14 March 1926.
[4] *Der land- und forstwirtschaftliche Arbeitgeber*, 31 Oct. 1924.

The Trade Union Movement among Salaried Employees

The organisations of commercial, clerical, and technical employees have developed in much the same way as the trade unions of manual workers, and in most countries have reached an advanced stage of development, especially since the war. A clear idea of the aims common to the different elements of the movement can be obtained from a study of the transactions of congresses and their programmes and resolutions concerning social legislation.

The purpose of this article is to outline the special features and characteristics of these organisations and in particular to state the claims which they have formulated in the sphere of the international regulation of labour.

AS AN outcome of a recent international conference attended by leading representatives of unions of salaried employees a definite programme for obtaining new safeguards for non-manual workers by way of international regulation was adopted and forwarded to the International Labour Office. The Office has already selected certain questions for study with a view to subsequent decision as to their inclusion in the agenda of a Session of the International Labour Conference.

The scope of the claims put forward by a specific occupational group usually depends on the circumstances under which they arise. Some account of the international organisations of employees, their attitude towards manual workers, and the peculiarities of their movement resulting from the fact that in most countries they are under special legislation, is thus called for.

Before the war the international organisation of salaried employees, which was still very weak, was represented by two international secretariats, one of a neutral tendency, at Ghent, and the other, comprising the "free" unions, founded in 1910 at Copenhagen. International relations, interrupted by the war, were resumed on the initiative of the Netherlands General Federation of Shop Assistants and Clerical Workers in agreement with the International Federation of Trade Unions at Amsterdam. At a conference held in October 1920 it was decided to summon a congress for the foundation of an international federation. This

congress was held at Vienna in August 1921, and adopted the constitution of the new organisation, the International Federation of Commercial, Clerical, and Technical Employees, which is now affiliated to the Amsterdam International. It comprises 41 national organisations in 19 countries, and had a membership of 736,303 on 31 December 1925. It consists entirely of employees and technicians, officials being excluded, and is subdivided into several occupational groups : commercial and clerical employees, commercial travellers, bank clerks, technicians.

The International Federation of Hotel, Café, and Restaurant Employees, whose headquarters are in Berlin and which is also affiliated to the International Federation of Trade Unions, had 63,754 members on 31 December 1925.

The International Federation of Christian Unions of Employees, founded in 1921 at Luxemburg after several preliminary conferences called by the Netherlands' Association of Christian Shop Assistants and Clerical Workers, comprises 8 national organisations in 6 countries. Its headquarters are in Paris. The membership of this organisation on 31 December 1925 was 484,150. The most important affiliated organisation is the German Federation of Unions of Employees (Christian-Nationalist) (*Gesamtverband deutscher Angestelltengewerkschaften*), the membership of which on 31 December 1925 was 411,113. The International Federation of Christian Unions of Employees is affiliated to the International Federation of Christian Trade Unions.

A fourth international organisation of salaried employees was founded at the beginning of 1925 : the International Federation of Independent Unions of Employees, the headquarters of which are at Strasburg. It comprises the organisations of salaried employees which adhere to the principles of independent or evolutionary trade unionism and numbers 11 associations in 8 countries. Its membership on 31 December 1926 was 345,000. The most important affiliated organisation is the German Trade Union League of Employees (*Gewerkschaftsbund der Angestellten*), which had 273,016 members on 31 December 1925.

There is also an International Federation of Associations of Commercial Travellers, founded in 1900, with headquarters in Paris. This organisation held a congress in Vienna at the beginning of September 1926, at which 29 organisations in 13 countries were represented. Its principal purpose as defined in its constitution is to collect and compare the legislation concerning commercial travellers in different countries and the various regulations affecting

them as nationals or foreigners in the countries where they exercise their vocation, and to improve their moral and material position by effecting through a common effort the reforms needed by these laws and regulations. Apart from the Belgian, French, and British organisations, the affiliated associations, however, do not confine their aims to the defence of their occupational interests. Some of them include both employers and wage earners.

More than two and a half million salaried employees are thus organised internationally.

There are also a great many national associations which remain outside the international organisations, but pursue a policy which at certain points coincides with that of the international federations. The most important of these is the German General Federation of " Free " Unions of Employees (*Allgemeiner freier Angestelltenbund*), which at the end of 1925 comprised 14 unions with 428,185 members.

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The constitution of these national and international associations has from the first given rise to much controversy. In particular, the partisans of trade-union concentration object to separate organisations of workers, employees, and officials, and advocate the union of manual and non-manual workers in general associations organised on an industrial basis.

At the last conference of the International Federation of Commercial, Clerical, and Technical Employees (Copenhagen, September 1925) a report on this question was presented by Mr. G. Buisson (France). Speaking from a practical point of view he held that the best form of organisation for employees was that which most closely corresponded to their character and would unite them in the largest numbers: any form of organisation, however excellent in theory, was worthless if it resulted in keeping out of the union the majority of its potential members.

On the other hand Mr. S. Aufhäuser, President of the German General Federation of " Free " Unions of Employees, in an article[1] on manual and non-manual workers, expressed the following opinions:

[1] *International Trade Union Review*, April-June 1925.

In some countries non-manual workers engaged in industry are organised in the same unions as the manual workers of the same trade. But this form of organisation has not justified itself; the organisation of manual and non-manual workers in the same unions presupposes a degree of ethical progress which has not yet been attained by most non-manual workers. Many non-manual workers spring from the ranks of the middle classes, their social education has been of the bourgeois type, and it is impossible to induce them overnight to join the unions catering for their trade. The result of this policy has therefore been that where non-manual workers have been unable to form a special organisation suited to their social needs and mentality, only very few have joined the general industrial union. . . .

The greatest successes in the organising of non-manual workers have so far been achieved in countries where there have been separate unions for non-manual workers who adopt the Amsterdam platform.

In most countries the three groups — workers, employees, officials — are completely separate. This has been the case in Germany[1] since the war and internationally since the foundation of the International Federation of Officials and Teachers. The question of industrial unions, to include all kinds of workers in an industry, was a subject of discussion at the last congress of the International Federation of Commercial, Clerical, and Technical Employees, which decided that in view of the discussions taking place in several countries it was desirable to ascertain which method of organisation would attract to the unions the largest number of employees of all classes. After observing that in some countries specialised unions of employees had adopted such a form of organisation as to procure the largest possible membership in these countries, the congress protested against the claim put forward by certain industrial unions to incorporate employees against their will, the persons concerned being themelves the best qualified to determine that form of organisation which was compatible with their interests.

It would be a mistake to deduce from this that the organisations of employees within the International Federation of Trade Unions are determined to remain completely independent. On the contrary, their policy often coincides with that of the workers' organisations, at least in broad matters of general interest. Formal

[1] In Germany the "free" unions of manual workers are affiliated to the General Federation of German Trade Unions (A.D.G.B.); the employees belong to the General Federation of "Free" Unions of Employees (A.F.A.); the officials to the General Federation of Officials (A.D.B.). The three groups are independent and act in common only for the study of general questions. This has been called the three-pillar system. The Christian unions and the independent unions similarly include separate groups for officials and employees as well as for manual workers, but in each case the three groups belong to one central organisation.

autonomy of organisation does not prevent that agreement which is necessary to bring about social progress in a way profitable to all wage earners, whether workers or employees. The International Federation of Commercial, Clerical, and Technical Employees is even working for larger representation[1] on the various committees of the International Federation of Trade Unions. This question has been placed on the agenda for the next congress of the latter organisation (August 1927). The demand of the employees is that a representative of their international organisation be added to the workers who form the Bureau of the Amsterdam International.

The Christian organisations have also expressed their views on the subject of general industrial unions and are opposed to every plan of including workers and employees in the same association. In opening the second congress of the International Federation of Christian Unions of Employees (Lucerne, June 1925), the President, Mr. Habermann, expressed in the following words the necessity for retaining separate organisations :

> The salaried employees form a middle class with special characteristics in modern economic life, a class, moreover, which has extremely important social functions to fulfil. We observe that they themselves by a great majority refuse to be included in the proletariat. . . . It is thus clear that in each country country salaried employees regard themselves as a middle class distinct from the proletariat.

This utterance, indeed, aroused some controversy. The debate was summed up in the following formula presented by the Secretary, Mr. G. Tessier :

> It is desirable to give salaried employees organisations of their own allowing them means of vocational and technical training adapted to their needs.
>
> Collaboration of employees organised in their own trade unions with workers' organisations in general, as well as with the labour movement as a whole, is also desirable.
>
> In all countries the solution appears to be provided by autonomous unions of employees, combined with organised relations between these unions and the workers' unions of the various countries.

The methods of organisation which employees have followed are not at all uniform. In some countries they are organised by

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[1] The Secretary of the International Federation of Commercial, Clerical, and Technical employees, Mr. G.J.A. Smit, jun., is at present a member of the General Council of the I.F.T.U., but he holds his seat as delegate of the international Secretariats, which have three representatives on this Council.

occupations; in others by undertakings. The highest degree of centralisation exists in Czechoslovakia, where all the associations of employees and technicians (clerical workers, shop assistants, commercial travellers, technical workers, etc.) belong to the same central body. Decentralisation is most marked in Austria, where there is a special organisation for each group of employees: bank clerks, insurance employees, notaries' and solicitors' clerks, shop assistants, etc. In France, the Scandinavian countries, and the Netherlands, shop assistants and clerical workers are organised separately from technical employees.

In Great Britain clerical workers, shop assistants, and commercial employees in general are organised in various large unions affiliated to the Trades Union Congress. These unions are for the most part open to the various categories of commercial employees. Employees in retail trade establishments are organised in the National Union of Distributive and Allied Workers, which has 93,000 members and is affilated to the International Federation of Commercial, Clerical, and Technical Employees. Women clerks and secretaries are partly organised in a separate union, which is affiliated to the Trades Union Congress. Insurance employees, managers of branches of co-operative societies, and technical employees form special organisations which are generally affiliated to the National Federation of Professional Workers. The latter organisation includes numerous other classes of intellectual workers, and is itself affiliated to the International Federation of Intellectual Workers.

In a recent article[1] on trade union organisation of salaried employees, the secretary of the International Federation of Commercial, Clerical, and Technical Employees, Mr. G. J. A. Smit. jun., emphasised the situation of salaried employees in relation to organisations of intellectual workers. His conclusion is that while in certain cases an employee may share the interests of the intellectual workers, his economic and social interests can only be expressed through manual workers' organisations, since they are merged in the general interests of all wage earners.

The institution and the development of occupational groups within the International Federation of Commercial, Clerical, and Technical Employees were the subject of a report at the last congress of that organisation presented by Mr. Otto Urban

[1] *International Trade Union Review*, Dec. 1926.

(Germany), President of the Central Association of Employees (*Zentralverband der Angestellten*) and of the International Federation. Mr. Urban, while pointing out the inconvenience of multiplying special sections corresponding to organised groups, concluded that it was necessary to keep a certain number of occupational sections.

A special report was presented at the same congress by Mr. R. Klein, President of the Czechoslovakian Federation of Shop Assistants and Clerical Workers, calling for a special conference of commercial travellers and agents belonging to affiliated organisations, which should include in its agenda the question of methods of organisation of that group. This conference was held at Prague from 29 to 31 October 1926[1].

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These problems of organisation are rendered particularly difficult by the uncertainty which exists, both in the matter of membership of the unions and in the scope of legislation, as to the definition of the classes of persons to be included under the term " employees ". The distinction between manufacturing industries and commercial undertakings is often difficult in practice. Generally speaking, the term " manual worker ", or " worker " alone when ambiguity is unlikely to be caused by the use of the shorter term, is applied to any person engaged in manual labour and working for an employer, whatever the nature of the establishment in which the work is done (shop, yard, factory, workshop), and whatever the method of remuneration ; while the term " salaried employee ", or " employee ", includes persons employed in commerce and industry who are entrusted by an employer with labour which is mental rather than physical. This distinction is not, however, absolute and universal. In Germany, the term *Privatangestellte* is applied to workers bound by contract to an individual or a private undertaking, who are executive agents and represent the interests of their employer, whether an individual or a firm ; it thus includes not only commercial employees, but engineers, chemists, draughtsmen, clerical workers, officers of the mercantile marine, etc. The status of " employee " has in fact to

[1] Cf. *Industrial and Labour Information*, Vol. XX, p. 515.

be distinguished not only from that of " worker " but also from that of " professional worker ", and the latter distinction is not everywhere made on the same basis.

In drafting special regulations for salaried employees legislators have sometimes given a legal definition of the term " employee " (German Act of 4 February 1920 on works councils ; Finnish Act of 24 October 1919 on the contract of employment of employees ; Greek Act of 11 March 1920 on notice of dismissal, following the Act of 31 March 1918 on the position of employees in case of war ; Luxemburg Act of 31 October 1919 on the contract of employment of employees ; Norwegian Act of 9 August 1918 on the minimum wage of subordinate employees). Occasionally, the classes of persons who are regarded as employees are enumerated in the law itself ; the list is generally drawn up on the basis of the nature of the work and the nature of the undertaking (Austrian law of 11 May 1921 on the contract of employment of employees).

In fixing conditions of membership trade unions have themselves been obliged to adopt certain criteria, which vary in different countries on account of important differences in the composition of unions. This diversity makes a united policy the more difficult, both nationally and internationally. The same problem appears in a still more complex form in connection with the enforcement of social legislation. In order to minimise as far as possible the difficulties resulting from this state of affairs, the interested organisations are urging that in all countries the legislation applying to workers and employees give a definition of each category, that only one interpretation be admitted for all the laws of any one country, and that efforts be made to arrive at a single legal definition for all countries[1].

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Another question of principle is under discussion in the organisations. The question is whether it is desirable to claim special legislation for employees or whether it is preferable to demand uniform legislation for workers and employees. At the first Congress of the International Federation of Commercial, Clerical, and Technical Employees (Vienna, 1921) the representatives of

[1] On the definition of the term " employee " cf. INTERNATIONAL LABOUR OFFICE : *International Survey of Legal Decision on Labour Law, 1925*, under the heading : " Italy : Contract for Private Employment (Salaried Workers) ". Geneva, 1926

the Austrian unions presented a report showing the necessity of special legislation. This view, which was opposed by the German and Dutch delegates, was revived at the Copenhagen Conference (September, 1925). Mr. K. Pick, President of the Austrian Central Association of Commercial Employees, after studying the experiments made in countries where there is very extensive special legislation referring to employees, presented a further report describing the efforts made for over twenty years to obtain special legislation in their favour, and the considerable progress achieved not only in the present Austria but also in the new States born of the break-up of the old Empire. After pointing out that there are special laws for the protection of miners, bakery workers, and seamen, and that these special laws have never aroused any opposition on the part of other trades, Mr. Pick asked the Congress to make a formal declaration in favour of special legislation, with the understanding that the special laws should never prejudice the interests of the workers as a whole.

In the report presented on the same subject by the Executive Committee of the International Federation, Mr. G. J. A. Smit, jun., pointed out the differences in the social legislation affecting employees in the various countries. Some countries, such as Germany, have highly developed special legislation, while in others special protection is quite inadequate or does not exist. Mr. Smit's first deduction from this is the impossibility of following out a uniform policy in all countries. In some cases the employees must endeavour to develop the existing special legislation; in some others they must devote their efforts to making use of the general legislation in force. The following principle should, however, be adopted: a single body of legislation for all wage earners, whether workers or employees, which does not mean the same legislation for all. There must be special protection for different categories: all, for example, should have the right to holidays with pay, but there should be different regulations (as to length and remuneration) for different categories of workers.

The following conclusions appear at the end of the report:

It would not be possible to adopt a programme binding the persons concerned in all countries to a common policy regarding the form of social legislation.

The question whether in a given country the effort should be to acquire special rights for employees or to bring about general legislation for all wage earners is a question of expediency; the choice will depend on the state of existing legislation and on the organised strength of the employees and of the labour movement in general.

In principle the policy should be to make social legislation equally favourable to all wage earners, adopting as a starting-point the most advantageous legislation existing for any category.

In the meantime, whatever the form of social legislation, the workers' organisations may be called upon to support the claims of the employees when these are based on actual facts or on regulations in force in foreign countries.

Whatever the form of social legislation, there must be no distinction based on the remuneration of wage earners or on the work they do.

General agreement through the medium of the international Secretariat is indispensable for bringing about legislation as far as possible of a uniform type in all countries. The possibilities of social legislation are infinite. As soon as regulation of one point is obtained steps must be taken to develop it or to obtain further regulations.

The resolution supported by the delegates from Germany, France, and Czechoslovakia, which was adopted at the end of the discussion, states that the international trade union movement of employees pledges itself to strive for the protection of labour and the improvement of the social status of employees, in close collaboration with the manual workers; that the affiliated organisations are to strive energetically and without relaxation for the improvement of existing social legislation, as a first step in the policy of extending to all other countries the favourable laws and regulations in force in any one country. The resolution emphasises the results obtained in certain countries by the adoption of special legislation for employees and invites the affiliated organisations "to turn the experiments made in this direction to good account".

Finally, the Executive Committee was requested to collect information about the regulations and laws affecting employees in force in the different countries and to investigate their effects, so as to enable the next congress to determine the best policy to adopt for the improvement of legislation.

The International Federation of Christian Unions of Employees has also been considering the attitude it should adopt towards this problem. The journal of this organisation (January 1925) published a statement recommending the adoption of special legislation for employees suited to their character, ambitions, and needs; this would be justified by the economic function of employees and also by their social importance, arising from the position they hold midway between manual labour and management, and should deal especially with the establishment of the contract of employment, the termination and suspension of the contract, the notice of dismissal, indemnities on dismissal, and holidays with pay. In October 1924 the Executive Committee of this organisation

decided to ask the affiliated sections for information on the state of social legislation concerning employees in the different countries ; this information has been published from time to time as received by the Secretariat.

The fact is that neither the "free" unions nor the Christian unions appear disposed to support a definite formula. Everything depends on the actual situation. At the present time special legislation for employees exists in numerous countries. Since the war the contract of employment has been regulated by law in Austria (Act of 11 May 1921), Belgium (Act of 7 August 1922), Finland (Act of 1 June 1922), Greece (Act of 11 March 1920), Hungary (Decree of 1 March 1920), Italy (Legislative Decree of 22 November 1924), and Luxemburg (Act of 31 October 1919). In other countries (Germany, France, Switzerland) the contract of employment of employees in regulated by older legislation. Almost everywhere special laws for their protection have come into existence (laws on the weekly rest, closing hours of shops, etc.). The employees affected naturally wish to keep the safeguards and advantages thus obtained and tend to demand their extension ; but this obviously does not imply any renunciation of the advantages they derive from general regulations applying to workers and employees alike ; and they follow the development of social legislation with a desire to be treated on the same footing as the workers whenever this is not inconsistent with the nature of their employment.

In recent years both the " free " and the Christian organisations have taken the same interest in the study both of the law and of the facts of the situation, so showing their desire to collect as much information as possible to provide a sound basis of principles for their policy in the field of social legislation.

Apart from the investigations carried out by the international trade union organisations themselves, an enquiry into the legal and social position of employees was undertaken by the International Association for Labour Legislation. The report presented in the course of this enquiry by the Secretary of the Swiss Federation of Unions of Employees, Mr. F. Horand, contains considerable information covering a number of countries on the conclusion of the contract of employment and its contents, and the state of legislation on hours of work, the weekly rest, the protection of women and children, annual holidays with pay, unfair competition, the protection of inventors, etc. An important purpose of this enquiry was to collect the necessary data to serve as a basis for laying down international standards for future legislation ; the aim in view does

not, however, seem to have been realised, since a large number of countries did not reply to the questionnaire sent them, or gave inadequate replies.

* * *

As a result of all these experiments an international Conference, attended by representatives of organisations of different tendencies, met at Montreux on 21 and 22 September 1926. This Conference had been convened by the Swiss Federation of Unions of Employees on the occasion of the first meeting of the International Association for Social Progress. It drew up a programme[1], which was

[1] The programme is as follows (Cf. *Industrial and Labour Information*, Vol. XX, pp. 51-53):

PROTECTION OF SALARIED EMPLOYEES

The meeting confirms the resolution of the International Association for Labour Legislation, adopted in 1922, that an enquiry should be undertaken into the situation of salaried employees in private undertakings. The results of this enquiry, and the situation which it has revealed, prove that the protection of salaried employees is more than ever necessary.

The meeting therefore decides to do everything possible to secure the following reforms:

I. *Claims relating to Existing International Conventions and Recommendations*

All the Conventions and Recommendations of the various Sessions of the International Labour Conference, existing or to be adopted in the future, should apply to salaried employees, unless they specially concern other classes of workers, to such an extent as the particular situation of salaried employees allows.

The International Labour Office should endeavour to carry out this policy.

Hours of Work. Maximum hours of work should not exceed 8 per day on working days. One free half-day should be granted per week, either on Saturday afternoon or on another day.

When the public interest makes Sunday work absolutely necessary, the duration of such work should be deducted from the normal duration of the working week.

The closing of shops at 7 p.m. should be compulsory in commercial undertakings. Further, the authorities should be free to order the closing at 6 p.m. either of all such undertakings or of certain of them. Such an order should be compulsory when the majority of the persons concerned (employees and employers) so decide.

The Weekly Rest. There should be a complete rest on Sunday in all branches of commerce.

A stoppage of work for at least 40 consecutive hours should be granted every seven days.

Protection of Women. Women employees should not be dismissed as a result of any interruption in their work caused by pregnancy or childbirth. When the contract of service is denounced by the employer within the period from six weeks before to six weeks after childbirth, it should not actually terminate until eight weeks after childbirth.

The Washington Convention on the subject should be amended in this sense.

unanimously approved by the meeting of the International Association for Social Progress, setting out the claims of employees with reference to international Draft Conventions and Recommendations already adopted by the International Labour Conference and enumerating the questions which might be subject to new national and international regulations. It decided to request the International Labour Office to consider how the reforms demanded might be realised.

II. *Claims put forward as Suitable to form the Subjects of new National and International Regulations*

Anti-Competition Clause. Any clause forbidding an employee to accept a situation in an undertaking similar to the one he is leaving during the period following the cancellation of his agreement should be considered null and void.

Penalties should be enacted against any head of an undertaking who agrees, by open or secret agreements, to refuse to engage certain employees.

Holidays. All employees or apprentices are entitled to paid holidays, the duration of which should be extended according to length of service.

Payment of Wages. When an employee is prevented from doing his work as the result of an accident not due to his own fault, or as a result of military service, he is entitled to at least six weeks' wages. This period should be increased according to length of service. If the employer cancels his agreement during this period, the cancellation should be null and void.

This rule should apply equally to the assigns of the employee, as regards his wages, in the event of his death.

When the employee is unable to do his work as a result of having fulfilled his duties as a citizen, he should not lose his right to remuneration.

Dismissal. Notice before dismissal to be given by the employer should be at least six weeks, counting from the end of the current quarter. This period of notice should be increased according to the length of service of the employee.

Notice of resignation to be given by the employee should be four weeks, counting from the end of the current month.

Indemnity for Cancellation of Contract. The cancellation of a contract of employment for no fault of his own should entitle an employee, after at least two years' service, to an indemnity which should vary according to his period of service.

Protection of Inventors. In all countries identical regulations should be put into force for the protection of inventions by the employee, and his right to a patent establishing his priority in such inventions should be recognised.

III. *Better Conditions of Employment*

When, in a given country, as the result of legislation, agreement, or custom, there exist conditions of employment more favourable than those referred to above, the execution of the present reforms should in no way lessen such favourable conditions.

IV. *Work of the National Groups*

The meeting once more requests the national groups to do their utmost by representations to their respective Governments to secure the adoption of the reforms referred to in this resolution.

V. *Enquiries*

The enquiry undertaken in 1922 should be continued with a view to securing documentary information on the following questions:

(1) Methods of combating unemployment among salaried employees (relief

The Montreux programme first formulated the principle that all the Conventions and Recommendations of the International Conference already adopted or to be adopted in the future should apply to employees, unless they specially concern other classes of workers, to such an extent as the particular situation of salaried employees allows.

It should be noted that the majority of the Draft Conventions and Recommandations are applicable as they stand to employees as well as to workers (unemployment, employment of women before and after childbirth, workmen's compensation for accidents, compensation for industrial diseases, equality of treatment as regards workmen's compensation for accidents, inspection of emigrants on board ship, reciprocity of treatment for foreign workers, prevention of anthrax, protection of women and children against lead poisoning, immigration, labour inspection, utilisation of spare time). A special Recommendation has also been passed concerning the weekly rest in commercial establishments.

The question which appears to have the chief interest for employees is that of hours of work. At the Congress of the International Federation of Commercial, Clerical, and Technical Employees (Copenhagen, September 1925) a report on this question was presented by the General Secretary of the National Union of Distributive and Allied Workers, Mr. J. Hallsworth, and the Congress approved its conclusions, which recommended co-ordinated action in favour of the legal regulation of the 8-hour day and the 48-hour week.

The question was also discussed at the Congress of the International Federation of Christian Unions of Employees (Lucerne, June 1925). After discussion of a report presented by Mr. Christophe (Belgium) the following Resolution was adopted :

The Congress claims for all employees the legal limitation of hours of work on the basis of 8 hours per day or 48 hours per week. It believes that this regulation will not be effective unless the law enforces the

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for the unemployed, employment exchanges, occupational re-education, protection of aged employees, emigration, etc.);

(2) Protection of apprentices and occupational training;

(3) Protection for inventions made by employees;

(4) Privileges in the event of bankruptcy or liquidation;

(5) Labour inspection and control of the protection of employees;

(6) Reciprocity in regard to social insurance.

VI. *Collaboration with the International Labour Office*

The Bureau of the Association is requested to enter into relations with the International Labour Office with a view to considering, in collaboration with the Office, the methods by which the reforms alluded to in the present resolution can best be effected.

uniform closing of establishments. It insists that exceptions, which should be confined to indispensable cases, should not be granted by the administrative authority without the previous agreement of the organisations of employers and employees.

The question has also been discussed in national congresses, which have expressed similar views. But national legislation is not the only solution of the problem contemplated by the employees; they wish to obtain international guarantees and urge that the application of the clauses of the Washington Convention be extended to all employees not within the scope of the Convention. This is the outcome of the discussions at the Montreux Conference.

The programme adopted by this Conference also included a series of questions which the employees wish to have regulated by international Conventions. It seemed desirable to make a selection, by agreement between the parties concerned, in case it should later on be possible to submit them to the International Labour Conference. For this purpose a consultation, in which several of the leading representatives of the international employees' movement took part, was held at Geneva on 1 December 1926. As a result of this exchange of views it was recognised that for the present the only questions to be selected for possible inclusion in the agenda of a Session of the Conference were those connected with the suspension and cancellation of contracts of employment, such as the payment of wages in cases of involuntary interruption of work, the notice to be given before dismissal, and indemnities for cancellation of contracts.

Since the employers have quite as much interest as the employees in the establishment of rules constituting mutual guarantees in case of breach of the contract of employment, these are among the questions which might without too much difficulty be the subject of international agreements. In this field there are in existence very advanced national laws, and regulations of other kinds. In some countries the question is governed by legislation. In others contracts of employment or trade union agreements contain provisions determined by arrangement between the employers and employees. When there is no special system of regulation, legal decisions are based on the general law of contracts and obligations and on local custom.

The employees' request was submitted to the Governing Body of the International Labour Office in January 1927, but the question could not be included in the agenda of the 1928 Session of the Con-

ference, which is be confined to a single question, namely, the prevention of accidents. The problem of the notice to be given before dismissal must therefore be discussed anew with a view to a later Session of the Conference.

As an outcome of the meeting of 1 December it has also been decided that the International Labour Office shall collect the fullest information possible concerning both the closing hours of shops and the protection of inventors.

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The Montreux Conference had appreciable results in several directions. In the first place, the employees have issued a clear and precise statement of the attitude they intend to adopt in relation to international labour regulation. They have pronounced in favour of sustained action for the ratification of the Draft Conventions and Recommendations already adopted. They have made a careful choice of the questions to be proposed for new international regulation on the basis of experiments already made in certain countries. But the essential point is perhaps not so much the adoption of this programme as the unity shown with regard to it, both before and after the Conference, within organisations of different tendencies, " free ", Christian, and independent, which in other matters are sometimes directly opposed to each other[1].

It should also be recalled that at the International Labour Conference in 1925 a certain number of delegates wished to call the attention of the International Labour Organisation to the situa-

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[1] Among the great national organisations which were not represented at the discussion of the programme adopted by the Montreux Conference, but have themselves a programme of very similar range, should be mentioned the National Federation of Professional Workers (Great Britain), which has recently recommended the following subjects as calling for practical consideration :

(1) The drafting of appropriate legislation on certain points affecting non-manual workers.

(2) That there should be some form of limitation of hours of employment, taking into consideration the subject of extra payment for overtime.

(3) That there should be suitable periods of notice of termination of employment for employer and employee.

(4) That on leaving employment compensation should be made by employers to employees who have been in their service for specified periods.

(5) That there should be payment for annual leave and holidays, with minimum holiday periods according to service.

In the report presented to the Annual Conference of the Federation held on 7 February 1927, the General Secretary, Mr. Wm. C. Keay, emphasised the similarity of the two programmes, while pointing out the necessity of watching very carefully the application to British conditions of the proposed legislative points in the international sphere.

tion of employees. A draft Resolution suggesting that this question be included in the agenda of the next Session of the Conference was proposed, but at a late hour. The officers of the Conference thought that it was not advisable to bring it before the Conference in the absence of a specific proposal to insert a definite question in the agenda.

The agreement reached between the various organisations of employees as to the precise questions which they wish to see submitted to the Conference will therefore greatly facilitate decisions when the Governing Body again has occasion to consider their request.

It may thus be considered that the relations of the International Labour Office with salaried employees have now entered a new phase. Resolutions in this sense have been repeatedly formulated by the organisations concerned. The International Federation of Commercial, Clerical, and Technical Employees has asked that employees should be specially represented within the International Labour Organisation. The Executive Committee of the International Federation of Christian Unions of Employees (Brussels, October 1926), after hearing the report of the Montreux Conference presented by Miss Moehrke, of the German Federation of Unions of Employees, asserted the necessity of claiming from the International Labour Office a degree of recognition corresponding to the importance of the Christian organisations of employees. Finally, the International Federation of Independent Unions of Employees has requested that a special section be created in the International Labour Office for the study of all questions affecting clerical and administrative workers in industry and commerce.

These requests show that the three great international organisations of salaried employees are in agreement as to the importance to be attached to the assistance that the International Labour Organisation can give them. The action undertaken as a result of the Montreux Conference is a sufficient indication of the spirit in which the Office is interested in giving satisfaction as far as possible to the requests presented to it.

REPORTS AND ENQUIRIES

The Conference of Governors of the British East African Dependencies, 1926

A summary has recently been published of the proceedings of the Conference of Governors of the British East African Dependencies, convened by the Secretary of State for the Colonies, following a suggestion of the East Africa Commission which visited East Africa in 1924[1].

The Conference met at Nairobi from 26 January to 11 February 1926. It was attended by the Governor of Kenya, who presided, the Governor of Northern Rhodesia, the Governor of Nyasaland, the Governor of Uganda, the Governor of Tanganyika Territory, the British Resident for Zanzibar, and the Civil Secretary to the Sudan Government. It is probable that the holding of this Conference will establish a precedent, for the members in a concluding resolution unanimously expressed "the desire that the Conferences should meet annually in future, so far as circumstances permit, and that the continuity of the work of consultation and co-ordination should be maintained by the establishment of a permanent Secretariat."

Land and Labour Policy

Among the items on the agenda was "Land and Labour Policy", the two subjects, in the words of the Chairman, going hand in hand in many respects.

There was general agreement that a definite policy was essential, and eventually a memorandum was drawn up and accepted by the Conference as the basis for such policy in the East African Dependencies.

This memorandum first draws attention to two characteristics which differentiate East Africa from British West Africa: in the first place, the population is very sparse by comparison with the extent of the territory and its potentialities; in the second place, large areas are, by reason of their altitude, suited climatically for European colonisation. Although in some parts of East Africa, Uganda, for example, development is broadly on the same lines as in West Africa, in East Africa as a whole it may be said that if the whole country were to be handed over to a policy of native production alone under the guidance of European administration, it would have to be constituted an economic sanctuary so as to prevent the economic needs of the out-

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[1] *Conference of Governors of the East African Dependencies, 1926. Summary of Proceedings.* London, Waterlow and Sons, 1926. 51 pp. 2s. 6d.

side world from forcing some other form of economic development upon it. For these reasons East Africa has already been committed to what is known as the dual policy, i.e. a combination of non-native and native production.

The dual policy, however, raises considerable problems of its own. On the one hand, there is the obligation which rests on every civilised government to raise the capacities of its subjects to their fullest expression; on the other, there is the equally imperative duty of developing to the utmost the productive powers of its possessions. The whole problem is to arrive at a just and far-seeing method of harmonising the best progress and welfare of the native inhabitants with the maximum of production.

To solve this problem the memorandum states that it is essential to have a clear policy in regard to the two factors of land and labour.

With regard to land policy the following conclusions are reached:

(1) Wherever a native population exists sufficient land should be secured to it to afford full opportunity for economic stock breeding and dairying or for the production of crops, according as the tribal bent is for pastoral or agricultural pursuits;

(2) European colonisation should be encouraged wherever the climate is suitable and adequate areas are available for settlement without depriving the existing native population of sufficient land for its own use;

(3) The area of land reserved for a native tribe should be sufficient to accommodate the whole tribe together, so that where a tribal organisation exists it may be preserved and improved, and so that where none exists some form of native institutions may be gradually developed.

In accepting these conclusions the Governor of Tanganyika made a reservation that the land policy of Tanganyika Territory, under which the land is vested in the Governor for the use and the common benefit of the natives, should remain unimpaired in every respect and that the Government of Tanganyika does not commit itself to the policy of native reserves, to which it is opposed.

The principles in regard to labour were held to arise out of the above conclusions in regard to land. They promise to be of such importance in the development of labour policy in East Africa that they are here printed in full:

(1) The ideal in view should be to enable land to be put to the best possible economic use, while also providing for the steady progress and welfare of its native inhabitants, and safeguarding them against serfdom in any form whatever.

(2) Steady progress cannot be secured in some areas unless every able-bodied native who shows no tendency to work is given to understand that the Government expects him to do a reasonable amount of work, either in production in his own Reserve or in labour for wages outside it.

(3) In areas where the first alternative is not within his reach, the native should be definitely encouraged to go out to labour. In others, where both alternatives are open to him, the Government is not concerned to impose either upon him, but simply to ensure so far as it can that he shall work in the cultivation of his own land, if he

pleases, or else as a wage earner on alienated land, if he prefers it. In all areas where these two alternatives exist, the natural play of human preference and economic impulse should be allowed to take its course, so that the native may choose to work in whichever way pleases and pays him best.

(4) While communications are undeveloped and distribution therefore difficult, it is essential that the native should be instructed to grow sufficient foodstuffs for his own livelihood. Otherwise, provided risk of famine be avoided, the natural play of economic forces should be allowed to decide the choice of crops.

(5) In establishing markets for produce, it is desirable that the process of production should be regulated so as to secure the most efficient methods and the highest possible standard of product. These considerations necessitate some regulation of methods of production and the standardisation of products by grading. If these principles be accepted, they will indicate what restrictions may be necessary in the growth of certain crops by natives. There is no case for prohibiting a native, just because he is a native, from growing any economic crop; but there is a very strong case for debarring from production any inefficient producer who endangers other producers, whatever his race. There is little doubt that for many years to come the majority of natives will be unable to grow certain crops with safety and efficiency, but there are many others which they are well fitted to grow.

(6) In areas open to settlement, Government should encourage the growth of those crops for which the least labour is required, and should, where necessary, regulate the growth of those which make heavy demands on labour for a short period in the year.

(7) It is by no means certain that the native will prove capable of making adequate economic use of all the land secured to him, but there is no reason on that account why any attempt should be made in the future to take the land from him. It is, indeed, evident that in most cases the native is alive to considerations of economic advantage, and that his rudimentary ideas of the nature of wealth are changing. He is not likely to be content for ever with owning undeveloped land, or with the mere multiplication of herds of cattle, when he sees the profit that can be made in neighbouring areas from the skilled cultivation of land and from economic animal husbandry. He will always be free to choose whether he develops his land himself or brings in the aid of European knowledge and skill to develop it; and in many cases he will probably prefer to lease his land for cultivation by others rather than to take the risk and trouble involved in organising its cultivation himself. There is no reason why Government should limit his freedom of choice, provided only that the land is leased on fair terms and that adequate rents are secured for its native owners.

The memorandum concludes with the above principles.

Further discussion took place on the possibility of preparing a general code of instructions based on the memorandum for use by district officers throughout the East African Dependencies. It was, however, considered that this was not possible, but that the memorandum should be regarded as forming the basis of land and labour policy in the East African territories, so that each territory should issue for the use of its officers such instructions based on it as were necessary to meet the special conditions of each territory; and that since the conditions in Kenya and Tanganyika approximated closely to each

other, the Governors of these two territories should consult together before the issue of any special instructions on land and labour policy to their administrative officers.

Inter-Colonial Recruitment

In addition to the subjects treated in the memorandum the Conference examined certain other problems relating to labour conditions, one of which was that of inter-colonial recruitment. On this subject the Conference agreed that the policy of placing no obstacle in the way of the free flow of voluntary labour should be maintained, and that active recruiting might be allowed for government work in exceptional circumstances. The Governor of Nyasaland, however, stated that he was opposed to any direct recruiting in Nyasaland for work outside the Protectorate, though he would be prepared to consider special cases with a view to deciding whether he would communicate to Nyasaland natives the conditions under which they could obtain work in other parts of the East African Dependencies. The Governor of Northern Rhodesia considered that as regards Northern Rhodesia organised recruiting should, for the present, continue to be allowed for other than government work.

Native Crops

The Conference, after discussion in which the different conditions in areas suitable for white settlement and in areas reserved for natives were examined, decided that no conclusion should, in the present circumstances, be reached on this question except that the growing of Arabica coffee by the natives should certainly be discouraged and possibly prohibited. The Governor of Tanganyika, however, was unable to endorse this opinion, though he considered that the growth of Arabica coffee by the natives in areas of European settlement in Tanganyika should not be encouraged.

Compulsory Labour for Public Works

The Conference was unanimous in opposing the principle of compulsory labour. The members considered that, in present circumstances, it must be made use of occasionally, but that this should be done only under proper legislative authority. On this point the Governor of Northern Rhodesia stated that no legislative authority for making use of compulsory labour existed in Northern Rhodesia and that he had no intention at present of taking any powers in this direction.

Education and Apprenticeship

With regard to education the Conference agreed that no possible measures should be neglected to stimulate training in the arts and crafts as distinct from a purely literary education. It endorsed the resolution passed by the unofficial Conference held at Tukuyu declaring

that it is the duty of the Governments to provide greater and increasing facilities for the education of natives; and that this should tend rather to technical than to literary training. The Conference also took note that the Kenya Government would be willing to render every possible assistance to other East African territories which wished to send suitable natives for training in stock management and other cognate subjects. With regard to apprenticeship, the Conference agreed that some system of apprenticeship without penal sanctions was desirable, on the understanding that the parents of the pupil would give the necessary guarantees for the pupil completing his full term.

Study of Native Welfare

It was considered that the systematic study of the welfare of the natives was of great importance and that this study would require the investigation of all that affected not only his physical well-being but also his state of mind, his ideas of life, and his mental and moral development, especially as regards the effect of European civilisation on the native. The Conference felt, nevertheless, that it was impossible for the Governments to do more than provide for the co-ordination of research for the collection of statistics on the same basis throughout all territories and for the tabulation and comparison of results; that while a statistician should be appointed for these purposes and while every assistance should be rendered to any philanthropic body desiring to engage in any special line of research, they were not justified in spending money to appoint an organisation to study the effect of European civilisation on the native mind as had been suggested.

Debate in the House of Commons

The subjects considered by the Governors' Conference were touched upon incidentally in the House of Commons during the discussion of the Palestine and East Africa Loans (Guarantee) Bill.

An amendment was moved on 9 December 1926 for the omission of Kenya from the advantages of the Bill[1]. The proposer, quoting from the summary of proceedings of the Conference of Governors, stated that, as far as Kenya was concerned, if he was satisfied that it would be possible for the native to work effectively in his own reserve without undue pressure, his attitude would be different, but that recent Ordinances and recent pronouncements by responsible people in the Colony suggest that the native is being steadily pressed, by discreditable devices, to leave his reserve and work on the estates of the white planters.

In reply, the Under-Secretary of State for Colonial Affairs said that he could give the House the definite assurance that there was no intention to modify in any way the dual policy. The Government was definitely committed to it and intended that emphasis should be

[1] *Parliamentary Debates, House of Commons*, 9 Dec. 1926.

laid quite as much upon native production as upon working outside the reserves. He also stated that he was in complete agreement that compulsion should not be used. The Government had set its face against such a policy and had given a definite undertaking that it would not be followed.

The amendment to omit Kenya from the benefits of the Bill was negatived.

In the course of the same debate amendments were moved providing that the fair wages clause or principle should be followed in paying wages for work done in connection with expenditure under the loan, and that in particular no wage paid to able-bodied men in Africa should be less than 10s. a month over and above the cost of maintaining the labourer; and that the Advisory Committee set up in connection with the loan should consider the advisability of imposing conditions to safeguard the interests of the natives and to secure fair conditions of labour for those employed on works in connection with the loan.

With regard to these proposals the Secretary of State for the Colonies considered that there was substantial agreement in the House, and promised that he would try to find some form of words to cover the points raised which might be introduced in the Bill at some later stage in the proceedings.

On the following day the House of Commons accepted an amendment submitted by the Secretary of State for the Colonies and providing that "the Secretary of State shall satisfy himself that fair conditions of labour are observed in the execution of all works carried out under any loan raised in pursuance of this Act"[1].

The Industrial Distribution of the Working Population in Great Britain

The unemployment insurance statistics of Great Britain, besides providing detailed information on the extent and incidence of unemployment, also give, as a kind of by-product, valuable indications of the industrial distribution of the working population. Each insured worker has an unemployment book containing among other details the name of the industry in which he is employed. These books are exchanged once a year in July, and the opportunity is taken to recalculate both the total number of insured workers and their distribution among the various industries. For a series of years these figures give interesting information as to the expansion or contraction of industries.

Complete and detailed though these statistics are, within the limits of the insurance system, they do not cover the whole working population. Agriculture, notably, is excluded, and there is thus no means of estimating the number of workers employed in agriculture or its changes as compared with industry. Similarly domestic servants, home workers, civil servants, and permanent employees of certain

[1] *Idem*, 10 Dec. 1926.

local authorities and public utilities, are excluded, as are non-manual workers earning more than £250 a year. Even with these exceptions, however, the insurance system covers nearly 70 per cent. of the total employed population.

In the statistics insured workers are classified in a hundred industrial groups, each worker being registered in the industry which employs him, regardless of his particular occupation — a distinction which is important, for example, in the case of clerks, carters, and general labourers.

As a result of the exchange of unemployment books in July 1926 the Ministry of Labour is able to give two series of figures, one referring to Great Britain and Northern Ireland for the period July 1923[1] to July 1926, the other to Great Britain only for the single year 1925-1926[2].

Growth and Decline of Industries from 1923 to 1926

The total insured population of Great Britain and Northern Ireland rose from 11,502,800 in 1923 to 12,041,000 in 1926, an increase of 4.7 per cent[3]. This total net increase, however, covers the changing fortunes of many industries; some have declined — to judge by the number of insured workers employed — while others have expanded. A table is given showing the changes from year to year in 42 industries. Together these represented about the same proportion of the total insured population in both 1923 and 1926 (68.67 and 68.56 per cent.), but there was a considerable change in the distribution of the workers. Twenty-one of these industries showed a total increase of 14.2 per cent. or 643,000, and eleven a total decrease of 7.6 per cent. or 251,600.

Building and Allied Industries

The most marked increase is in building and trades connected with it. The number of insured workers in building increased by 12.3 per cent., in public-works contracting by 29.7 per cent., in brick and tile making by 35.2 per cent., and in the manufacture of artificial stone, concrete, and cement by 54.4 per cent., the numerical increase for these four groups together being 155,000. There has for some time been a shortage of skilled building workers, and these figures suggest that this is being gradually overcome. The increase in the number of workers in artificial stone, etc. is probably due to the increased use of these new building materials.

Trade and Services

Increases are to be noted among workers engaged in various types of service and industries serving mainly the home market.

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[1] When the industrial classification of the insurance statistics was given its present form.

[2] *Ministry of Labour Gazette*, Nov. 1926, pp. 415-417.

[3] This increase is greater than the known increase in population over the same period.

The largest is in the distributive trades, where in three years the number of insured workers has risen by 20.9 per cent. to more than a million and a half. This is now the largest single group in the insurance scheme.

Tram and omnibus workers have increased by 18.6 per cent., workers in other forms of road transport by 10.1 per cent. The non-permanent railway employees who are included in the insurance scheme[1], on the other hand, have decreased by 15.9 per cent.

Workers in local government service have increased by 7.2 per cent., while those in the service of the National Government[2] have decreased by 15.7 per cent. Professional services show an increase of 8.5 per cent., laundries, dyeing, and dry-cleaning 14.7 per cent., and gas, water, and electricity supply 6.4 per cent.

The printing, publishing, and book-binding group has increased by 10.3 per cent. and furniture-making and upholstering by 15.3 per cent.

Heavy Industries

Among the staple industries, on the other hand, there is a marked tendency to decrease. In coal mining the decline of 2.2 per cent. in the number of insured workers represents an actual decrease of more than 23,000. The Royal Commission on the Coal Industry in 1926 definitely stated that the industry was overstaffed, and it will be recalled that unemployment was severe from the middle of 1924 to the autumn of 1925.

In blast furnaces and steel works the decrease has been 16.4 and 8.9 per cent. respectively, representing a drop of 23,660. The average of unemployment has been high in both these industries, 14 to 20 per cent. in blast furnaces and over 20 per cent. in steel works. In general engineering, where unemployment averaged 15.2 per cent. in 1924 and 12.6 per cent. in 1925, the number of insured workers has fallen by 7.9 per cent. (53,080). Shipbuilding, a very depressed industry, where unemployment has ranged from 26 to 43 per cent. in the last three years, shows a decline of 17.1 per cent. in the number of insured workers, and the allied industry of marine engineering, also severely depressed, one of 12 per cent.

Some indication of transfers among the various metal trades is given by the fact that side by side with these decreases there has been an increase of 12.3 per cent. (20,420) in miscellaneous metal manufacture and 6.2 per cent. in stove, grate, pipe, and general ironfounding. There has also been an increase of 6.1 per cent. in the tin-plate industry, a fact all the more interesting since employment has been very unstable in that industry during the last three years. Unemployment was slight until the autumn of 1924, when in three months it suddenly rose from 6 to 45 per cent. Since then it has declined slowly, but has remained for the most part above 10 per cent.

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[1] Permanent workers are not insurable.

[2] Regular civil servants are excluded.

The manufacture of electrical cable, wire, and lamps shows an increase of 21.7 per cent., and musical-instrument making, a comparatively small group, one of 25.3 per cent.

Textiles

In the textile group the rapid development of the silk and artificial silk industry is shown by an increase of 35.5 per cent. (14,420) in the number of insured workers. The woollen and worsted industry has declined by 6 per cent. (16,250), while cotton has increased slightly by 1.4 per cent. (8,190).

Losses and Accessions from 1925 to 1926

The second series of figures, which refers to Great Britain alone, analyses in some detail the cause of increases or decreases in the number of insured workers from 1925 to 1926. Every year a certain number of workers enter the insurance scheme for the first time, these being mainly young people under 18, although some may be adults previously employed in non-insurable industries. At the same time there is a continual wastage through death, emigration, retirement, transference to non-insurable employment, etc.

The total number of insured workers in Great Britain on 1 July 1926 was 151,000, or 1.3 per cent., higher than the year previously[1], but this was the result of an inflow of new entrants equal to 7.3 per cent. of the 1925 figure and a wastage of 6 per cent. The net increase was twice as great among men as among women, but the turnover due to the causes noted above was much higher among women. The increase of 1.5 per cent. in the number of insured men represents an influx of 5.5 per cent. and a wastage of 4 per cent., while the increase of 0.7 per cent. among women results from an inflow of 12.3 per cent. and a wastage of 11.6 per cent. The reason for this is stated to be that women remain in industrial employment on an average for a shorter period than men. It may also be due — though this is not mentioned — to changes from domestic service, which is not insurable, to industrial work and *vice versa*. This higher turnover among women is noticeable in practically every insurable industry.

The figures of new entrants and of losses are also given for each industry covered by the insurance scheme. A single industry may recruit additional workers from other industries as well as from outside the insurance scheme. In some cases the volume of such transfers equalled or exceeded the losses. For example, of the increase of 13.5 per cent. in musical-instrument making, 7.6 per cent. was accounted for by new entrants into insurance and 5.9 per cent. by the excess of transfers from other industries over losses. In the tin-plate industry, again, new entrants formed only 6.9 per cent. in the total increase of 12.8 per cent.

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[1] In Northern Ireland there was a net decrease of 2,000.

On the other hand, in industries which are shrinking in size losses are due to transfers to other industries as well as to the general causes noted above, and these may outweigh the number of new entrants to insurance. The number of workers engaged on the construction and repair of motor vehicles, cycles, and aircraft increased by 4.3 per cent., while in the construction and repair of other vehicles there was a decline of 3.6 per cent. In shipbuilding and ship repairing, although new entrants amounted to 2.9 per cent., the total number of insured workers in the industry dropped by 6.1 per cent.

The following figures refer to industries where the proportion of new entrants was largest.

CHANGES IN NUMBER OF INSURED WORKERS IN CERTAIN INDUSTRIES

Industry	Insured workers in July 1926		Percentage of new entrants
	Number	Per cent. of 1925 figure	
Hotel, boarding-house, club, etc. service	289,760	99.7	20.2
Laundries, dyeing and dry-cleaning	120,020	104.2	12.7
Distributing trades	1,481,860	103.4	12.6
Electrical wire, cable, and lamps	101,470	108.3	11.7
Dress industries other than tailoring	224,140	101.5	11.5
Public-works contracting	159,270	109.8	11.2

The high proportion of new entrants in hotel and boarding-house service was not sufficient to prevent an actual decline in the total number of insured workers, while in other industries also the wastage was nearly as large as the accession of new entrants. The following table shows the industries where the losses, by withdrawal from insurance or transfer to other industries, were highest.

LOSSES OF INSURED WORKERS IN CERTAIN INDUSTRIES

Industry	Insured workers in July 1926		Percentage loss	Percentage of new entrants
	Number	Per cent. of 1925 figure		
Hotel, boarding-house, club, etc. service	289,760	99.7	20.5	20.2
Leather and leather goods	66,970	96.9	10.4	7.3
National Government service	146,210	98.1	10.3	8.4
Railway service (non-permanent employees)	158,980	95.1	10.2	5.3
Tailoring	189,560	99.1	10.0	9.1
Other dress industries	224,140	101.5	10.0	11.5

It will be observed that hotel and boarding-house service and dress industries other than tailoring figure in both tables, which indicates a high turnover of workers.

Vocational Education in Great Britain in 1924-1925

Technical and Further Instruction in England and Wales

The first chapter of the Report of the Board of Education for the school year 1924-1925[1] is devoted to a survey of the provision made for technical and further instruction for apprentices and young persons employed in industry and commerce, in England and Wales. The survey begins with a historical summary of the development of institutions for vocational training. Commencing with the situation prior to 1889, when science and art schools were built under the Public Libraries Act, and the subsequent decennium (1889-1899), during which local authorities for technical instruction were first set up, the summary passes on to a third epoch — from 1899, when the powers previously exercised by a number of educational departments were united in a single central authority, up to the present time.

During the whole of the evolutionary period, which may be regarded as a long and slow preparation for the present organisation, improvements and innovations were initiated which made possible the gradual replacement of those schools which, as the Report states, failed to meet the visible needs of the time, and where the instruction available often did not correspond to the requirements of industry, by institutions in which the teaching is, so far as possible, directly in accordance with the needs of wage earners who want both general knowledge and specialised knowledge for practical purposes.

At the present time, the existing types of educational courses and arrangements for further education are classified as follows :

(*a*) " day continuation schools " or courses ;

(*b*) " evening schools " comprising evening or " similar " classes, the similarity residing in the fact that the classes, whether held in the evening or not, are planned for persons who are ordinarily fully occupied otherwise than as students ;

(*c*) full-time " technical institution courses ", which must include science and must be post-secondary in standard ;

(*d*) courses of " advanced instruction in arts ", which must be post-secondary in standard and in organisation ;

(*e*) " day technical classes " of advanced standard, or " day technical classes " organised to give instruction adapted to the technical

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[1] *Education in England and Wales, being the Report of the Board of Education for the school year 1924–1925.* London, H.M. Stationery Office, 1926. Cmd. 2695. 202 pp.

requirements of the students, amongst which are to be found full-time courses, post-elementary in character, for persons under 16:

(*f*) "junior technical schools";

(*g*) schools of nautical training;

(*h*) "schools of art", or "junior departments" of a school of art, or "branches" of a school of art;

(*i*) day "art classes", or more properly art schools of minor importance.

The official category of "evening and similar schools and classes" covers arrangements for students of all ages, above the age of obligatory full-time attendance, without distinction of the subjects studied. The structure of these courses is usually of a simple character, as they are intended for a large number of students of varying antecedents. There is, however, a tendency to extend the "grouped-course system" which permits the instruction given to be adapted either to local conditions or to the vocational needs of the students.

Grouped courses of evening study are classified as follows:

(*a*) "preparatory", if arranged for those who require a repetition of the work of the public elementary schools;

(*b*) "junior", if adapted to the needs of children who pass at 14 from the public elementary school to the evening school, for two years' study;

(*c*) "senior", if adapted to the needs of students who have left the "junior" course, or have left a school higher in standard than an ordinary public elementary school at 15 or 16, and proceeded forthwith to the evening technical or commercial school, for a course of at least two years' duration;

(*d*) "advanced", if adapted to the needs of older students and planned to reach, within the limits of the subject covered, the standard of university work.

Courses of all four types are only to be met with in important centres; provincial towns as a rule do not go beyond the provision of courses reaching the standard of group (*b*) inclusive, or, occasionally, that of certain courses which may be considered as coming under group (*c*).

The great majority of institutions for further education are "directed" for this purpose by the local education authority. The principal exceptions to this rule are some fifteen colleges, four schools of art, a junior technical school, and all the schools of nautical training.

The system of municipal provision and administration of schools is considered to have made possible the attainment of a remarkable pitch of development and efficiency. There are, however, certain inherent difficulties, especially as regards the provision of some of the more advanced and costly forms of technical education: for example, most of the great technical schools are in London or a county borough, and the maintaining authority of such a school cannot be expected to make provision at its own expense for students living outside its area. This difficulty has been got over in some instances by arrangements between neighbouring authorities. It is also interesting to note that where, as in a few cases, the technical school is on a foundation having a governing

body, of which some members are nominated by a county borough and others by the authority for the neighbouring county, the two authorities give liberal aid, sometimes in proportion to the attendance from the respective areas.

In some cases, further educational courses take place in building specially constructed for the purpose. The period 1889-1899, when the responsibilities of the local authorities were restricted to technical education, was more productive of buildings than the subsequent period, when their duties were extended to cover secondary education and the training of teachers.

About 3,000 teachers devote all their time to schools for further education. A small number of whole-time teachers divide their time between such schools and schools of other types. In addition to these full-time teachers, several thousands of persons are engaged for evening teaching only. Very many of these are full-time teachers in elementary and secondary schools who undertake evening teaching under separate engagements; the rest are primarily occupied in industry, commerce, and professions. The educational level of the teaching staff varies according to the subjects taught. In general, however, the full-time teachers of subjects such as languages, literature, mathematics, and pure science, and of special commercial and technical subjects, are university graduates or hold a diploma from some recognised professional institution.

Besides the teachers above described, there are others having experience of industry, handicraft, or commerce. In this group are to be found most teachers of textiles, of printing and process work, of boot and shoe making, of engineering and building crafts, of needle trades work, and of office arts.

The more important institutions for further education are of the "polytechnic" type, and comprise several departments each having day and evening students and normally full-time and part-time teachers. Many of these institutions have more than a thousand individual students. The Principal of such an institution is responsible for its general administration as well as for its educational organisation and management. Internally, he has to direct a large staff of teachers of various qualifications and antecedents, engaged for varying periods and for work of many different types; externally, he may be charged with general oversight of continuation schools which work in connection with his own institution, and should maintain relations with commercial or industrial circles in which his students are, or hope to be, employed.

Short full-time and part-time courses of instruction have been directly organised by the Board of Education for teachers of elementary mathematics, engineering, building, mining, textiles, boot and shoe manufacture, painting and decorating, dressmaking and millinery.

The report gives statistics of the number of students in various age groups having attended evening schools and classes in England and Wales during the school year ending 31 July 1924, as follows:

TABLE I. INDIVIDUAL STUDENTS IN EVENING SCHOOLS AND CLASSES

Students	Under 14	14 and under 16	16 and under 18	18 and under 21	21 and over	All
In "Colleges":						
Boys and men	148	8,494	26,570	33,180	35,108	103,500
Girls and women	163	3,370	6,771	7,540	20,970	38,814
In other evening schools:						
Boys and men	6,226	98,474	56,865	34,421	55,169	251,155
Girls and women	5,290	80,037	42,792	29,444	85,797	243,360
In all schools:						
Boys and men	6,374	106,968	83,435	67,601	90,277	354,655
Girls and women	5,453	83,407	49,563	36,984	106,767	282,174

TABLE II. INDIVIDUAL STUDENTS IN DAY CONTINUATION SCHOOLS

Students	Under 14	14 and under 16	16 and over	All
Boys	403	8,319	3,347	12,069
Girls	317	8,538	2,492	11,347

TABLE III. INDIVIDUAL STUDENTS IN JUNIOR TECHNICAL SCHOOLS

Students	Under 13	13 and under 15	15 and over	All
Boys	1,187	7,212	1,791	10,190
Girls	4	1,273	521	1,798

TABLE IV. INDIVIDUAL STUDENTS IN DAY TECHNICAL CLASSES

Students	Under 13	13 and under 15	15 and under 18	18 and under 21	21 and over	All
Boys and men	284	1,235	1,397	965	2,416	6,297
Girls and women	94	1,727	1,642	822	1,651	5,936

TABLE V. INDIVIDUAL STUDENTS IN TECHNICAL INSTITUTION COURSES OF ADVANCED INSTRUCTION IN ARTS

Students	Under 16	16 and under 18	18 and under 21	21 and over	All
Boys and men	174	1,082	1,564	887	3,707
Girls and women	5	65	229	121	420

TABLE VI. INDIVIDUAL STUDENTS IN JUNIOR DEPARTMENTS OF ART SCHOOLS

Students	Under 13	13 and under 15	15 and over	All
Boys	46	632	310	988
Girls	24	344	173	541

TABLE VII. OTHER STUDENTS IN ART SCHOOLS

Students	Under 13	13 and under 15	15 and under 18	18 and under 21	21 and over	All
Boys and men	543	3,440	8,309	4,818	6,220	23,330
Girls and women	455	2,392	5,602	4,546	11,585	24,580

TABLE VIII. INDIVIDUAL PUPILS IN SCHOOLS FOR NAUTICAL TRAINING

Students	Under 13	13 and under 15	15 and over	All
Boys	365	1,068	96	1,529

A striking fact which emerges is the large attendance of students over 16 at evening schools not placed in the "College" group; other points of interest are the preponderance of boys and men among students under 21 and of women among students over 21 years of age.

The great majority of students of all ages in schools for further education are fully occupied in the day and attend voluntarily in the evening. This part-time further instruction has the great advantage of making it possible for students to proceed stage by stage to the highest classes in a technical or commercial college, and eventually to clear the barriers which in so many other countries separate elementary schools from advanced educational institutions. Thus, in Great Britain, an industrious and capable technical student may in the end find his way to a position of high responsibility.

An examination is usually held at the close of a course of study; at the present time, particular attention is being given to examinations as a result of which students can obtain National Certificates of efficiency endorsed by certain professional institutions, and so endowed with a certain industrial currency. The following figures show the number of schools and students which have taken part in examinations

of this kind held in association with the Institution of Mechanical Engineers, the Institution of Electrical Engineers, the Institute of Chemistry, and the Institution of Gas Engineers.

TABLE IX. STATISTICS OF NATIONAL CERTIFICATE EXAMINATIONS, 1922-1925

Year	Part-time courses						Full-time courses					
	Ordinary			Higher			Ordinary			Higher		
	Schools	Candidates	Passed	Schools	Candidates	Passed	Schools	Candidates	Passed	Schools	Candidates	Passed
Mechanical Engineering												
1922	46	1,017	521	9	104	69	6	96	38	3	32	16
1923	73	1,138	606	17	185	122	6	58	38	5	46	30
1924	76	1,104	564	23	239	166	7	55	40	4	37	31
1925	82	1,083	572	31	302	213	7	49	32	4	31	28
Electrical Engineering												
1924	41	417	282	9	62	43	4	17	9	1	5	5
1925	45	387	229	16	117	79	3	12	8	1	2	2
Chemistry												
1922	12	93	23	3	10	6	–	–	—	—	—	—
1923	14	121	55	6	67	47	1	2	—	—	—	—
1924	17	99	57	6	65	42	–	–	—	—	—	—
1925	18	87	53	7	59	45	1	1	—	—	—	—
Gas Engineering												
1924	Not recorded		11	Not recorded		4						
1925	7	25	17	4	13	9						
Gas Supply												
1924	Not recorded		3	Not recorded		—						
1925	2	5	2	1	1	—						

Co-ordinated examinations in the various branches of art have also been organised ; these serve as a basis for awarding certain scholarships.

TABLE X. STATISTICS OF CO-ORDINATED ART EXAMINATIONS SCHEME

Subject	1922		1923		1924		1925	
	Candidates	Passed	Candidates	Passed	Candidates	Passed	Candidated	Passed
Drawing	228	68	289	86	281	114	273	115
Painting	32	16	28	21	26	19	26	16
Modelling	1	1	—	—	1	1	3	3
Pictorial design	10	6	12	8	24	18	21	15
Industrial design :								
Part I	44	24	65	31	71	52	93	66
Part II	18	22	16	23	33	18	52	44
Both	72	19	76	30	97	49	87	21

Referring to the relations of the schools with industry, the Report expresses the opinion that it is not an overstatement to say that, before the war, neither the scope nor the efficiency of technical school work was a matter of general interest to associations of employers or of workers. Employers as individuals, however, used long ago to encourage learners and apprentices to supplement their works training by the study of mathematics, science, and drawing. A few firms found it worth while to provide schools for their own staffs. More consideration than in the past is now given to the welfare of young workers, and the standard of both general and technical education has been considerably advanced. A recent enquiry in the schools shows that not less than 4,400 firms in England and Wales support attendance at technical schools, and that not less than 68,000 young persons come under arrangements for encouraging it. These include such active measures as taking part in " sandwich " schemes, under which the young person is alternately full-time at school and full-time at the works, and allowing time off each week for attendance at school during working hours. The particulars collected in the schools show that 57 firms (including 37 engineering, 6 shipbuilding, and 4 vehicle and rail-carriage building) take part in " sandwich " schemes, and 1,756 (including 438 engineering, 328 printing, 277 building trades and plumbing, and 58 vehicle and rail-carriage building) grant time off during ordinary working hours.

In other ways connections are set up between technical schools and the various industries. County Borough Education Committees not infrequently include, either as members of the appointing council or as co-opted members, persons engaged in local industries who, in the consideration of technical school matters, can represent industrial opinion. There are, in addition, in connection with some of the most efficient technical schools in the provinces, special advisory committees for important departments. These assist the schools, on some occasions no doubt as critics, but more often as interpreters, friends, and helpers. Moreover, various industries have made large financial contributions to the organisation and advancement of vocational training. There are also the Joint Industrial Councils, and various scientific and industrial associations or institutions whose attention is devoted to the problem of technical education, which contribute largely to research on the subject and to the elaboration of a suitable programme.

In the main, the educational facilities offered in continuation schools may be differentiated as general instruction and trade instruction. The first is given in day schools and also in evening classes. The attendance is generally good at day continuation schools in large towns or centres. In London, for example, the great majority of the pupils attend for as many as five half-days a week; some of the pupils in West Ham attend full-time. In the provinces, the period of attendance at such a school is normally one day a week; at Northampton and Nottingham the weekly attendance is only for one half-day. The subjects taught in some of these schools include arithmetic, science, technical drawing, woodwork, metalwork, etc. Junior courses in evening schools rarely exceed six hours weekly; the number of pupils enrolled during the first year invariably diminishes with succeeding years. These courses are, notwithstanding, found to be of considerable use to the minority of young persons who pass through to more advanced evening study.

Vocational or trade instruction is frequently given on the grouped-course system. Courses of instruction are arranged on these lines for shipbuilding, electrical engineering, the textile industry (special separate courses for cotton and wool), the chemical and gas industries, metallurgy, pottery manufacture, refractory materials, leather manufacture, paper making, pharmaceutical chemistry, coal mining, architecture, building and building crafts, boot and shoe manufacture, printing and process work, women's trades, housecraft, etc.

A further series of educational courses is provided for boys in seafaring occupations other than marine engineering, for commercial occupations, art and artistic crafts, and pure science.

Continuation Classes in Scotland

In the report presented to Parliament by the Committee of the Privy Council on Education in Scotland for the year 1924-1925[1], it is stated that during this period the number of continuation classes made some headway, especially in comparison with the year 1922-1923 when financial stringency made retrenchment necessary. The figures below show the situation in 1922-1923 and 1923-1924:

Pupils	1922-1923	1923-1924
Under fifteen	19,383	21,063
Between fifteen and eighteen	46,362	47,443
Over eighteen	53,864	55,274
Total	119,609	123,780

The number of students in attendance at the various courses was as follows:

Classes	Numbers in attendance 1922-1923	1923-1924
Classes for the completion of general elementary education	9,926	9,332
Classes for specialised instruction	55,631	58,040
Courses for specialised instruction	52,427	54,253
Auxiliary subjects	7,391	8,863

[1] *Report of the Committee of Council on Education in Scotland, 1924-1925.* London, H.M. Stationery Office, 1925.

This information, however, has no great value for purposes of comparison, inasmuch as the number of hours of attendance of one student may vary from 20 to 200. A more significant comparison is provided by the number of hours of attendance. In 1923, this was approximately 7,950,000; in 1923-1924 it increased to 8,220,000. Estimated by this standard, the progress of the continuation classes appears evident.

Detailed statistics for the year 1924-1925 are lacking, but progress may be observed in the number of centres in which occupational classes have been organised and their use in recent years:

Year	Number of centres
1922–1923	824
1923–1924	874
1924–1925	946

The total estimated expenditure for the year 1924-1925 was £298,000; for 1923-1924 it was £268,000, and £269,000 was actually spent. The estimated income from fees was about 5.8 per cent. of the total expenses, the corresponding figure for the preceding year being 6.7 per cent.

It was observed that in the year 1924-1925, as well as in the preceding year, the attendance at commercial classes increased while membership of technical classes decreased, owing, probably, to the continued depression in the productive industries. The only exception was in the building trades, where there was no scarcity of employment. It would appear that the diminishing enrolment in classes leading to productive industry is due to the widespread conviction that commercial workers are far better off, from the material point of view, that are those engaged in industry; and it is suggested that in commercial employment short time or reduction of staff is practically non-existent.

The subjects comprised in the programme for 1923-1924 covered a wide range, and included such diversified studies as plumbing, Hebrew, intelligence-testing, and the care of horses. Agriculture, however, is specifically mentioned as a branch of instruction calling for further development.

The grant payable to the Education Authorities on account of classes for unemployed juveniles was increased by the Minister of Labour from 75 per cent. to 100 per cent. as from 1 April 1925. The result was a large increase in the number of centres at which these classes are held.

The report mentions particularly the development of mining education, an important factor in which is the Miners' Welfare Fund, established under section 20 of the Mining Industry Act, 1920. The objects of this Fund are defined by the Act as "such purposes connected with the social well-being of workers . . . as the Board of Trade after consultation with any Government Department may approve." Mining education has been approved by the Board of Education as such a purpose.

Labour Disputes in Soviet Russia in 1924 and 1925[1]

A clear distinction is drawn in Soviet statistics between two categories of dispute : (*a*) those arising when a collective agreement is being concluded, (*b*) those resulting from the enforcement or interpretation of an existing collective agreement, or from labour conditions. The statistics of disputes in the first category include all workers covered by the agreement whose conclusion has caused the dispute, no attempt being made to distinguish how many of them are specially concerned in any particular point of the matter in dispute. For the second category, on the contrary, the statistics record in each case only the number of workers directly concerned.

Number and Magnitude of Disputes

The following table, based on data provided by the supreme arbitration court attached to the Commissariat of Labour, the Central Conciliation Board, and 81 provincial organisations for arbitration and conciliation, shows the total number of disputes referred to conciliation or arbitration in 1924 and 1925, and the number of workers involved in these disputes :

Cause of disputes	Disputes		Workers involved	
	1924	1925	1924	1925
Conclusion of collective agreements	2,117	3,239	1,565,000	2,868,000
Labour conditions	3,229	8,581	270,000	303,000

In 1925, 30 per cent. (in 1924, more than 40 per cent.) of the disputes occurred in Moscow and Leningrad, involving about half the total number of workers concerned in disputes during the year.

For disputes in the first category (conclusion of collective agreements) the average number of workers involved was 885 in 1925 (739 in 1924), representing the average number of workers covered by each collective agreement. For the second category the average in 1925 was only 35 workers per dispute (83 in 1924).

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[1] Cf. *Voprosy Trooda* (Labour Questions, monthly review of the Commissariat of Labour), Oct. 1926, pp. 29-39. The disputes considered here are only those referred to conciliation or arbitration procedure under Soviet legislation ; strikes, which in principal are not authorised except in private undertakings, are not included. Most of the disputes were in state undertakings. The statistics given here do not include disputes in transport undertakings (railways and waterways). These data complete the partial statistics for 1924 and the first half of 1925 given in the *International Labour Review*, Vol. XIV, No. 2, Aug. 1926, pp. 262-268.

The disputes referred to the arbitration court attached to the Commissariat of Labour were comparatively few, but were of great importance. In 1925, only 74 of the 3,239 disputes were referred to the court, but the average number of workers involved was 22,187. Similarly, only 22 disputes out of over 8,000 in the second category were referred to it, but the average number of workers involved was 2,731. Most of the disputes in this category concerned one or more individuals, which explains the relatively small number of workers involved; 47 per cent. affected a single person, 9 per cent. affected two each, 9 per cent. three or four, and only 21.4 per cent. more than ten.

Causes of Disputes

The following table shows the distribution by cause of disputes in the first category. It is to be noted that almost all the disputes have several causes, which explains why the general percentages are not the sums of the partial percentages.

DISTRIBUTION BY CAUSE OF DISPUTES ARISING OUT OF THE CONCLUSION OF COLLECTIVE AGREEMENTS

Cause of dispute	Percentage of disputes		Percentage of workers involved in disputes	
	1924	1925	1924	1925
Wages	79.5	76.6	90.8	89,5
Wage scales	71.6	66.9	76.4	64.4
Other wage questions[1]	14.3	26.2	28.0	56.6
Payments to be made by undertakings	29.9	41.4	40.2	48.0
For factory committees	11.2	13.1	11.2	12.4
For education	17.9	21.6	34.8	29.5
For medical aid	19.5	18.4	23.8	25.2
Protection of the workers	14.6	24.8	22.4	29.2
Hours of work	1.3	1.8	13.2	7.0
Working clothes	4.4	11.9	6.2	19.7
Annual holidays	10.1	14.2	5.2	16.7

[1] Payment for overtime and for work done on public holidays, adjustment of wages in case of unjustified absence of the worker or stoppage of the undertaking, payment of travelling expenses, repayment of the cost of certain public services (tramways, electricity, etc.)

In 1925, as in 1924, wage questions constituted the principal cause of disputes arising out of the conclusion of collective agreements; they are, at least partially, at the base of more than three-quarters of these disputes. At the same time it should be noted that wage scales caused fewer disputes in 1925 than in 1924, as the unions recognised the impossibility of obtaining any increases. Their attention was mainly concentrated on certain items of accessory expenditure: payments to be made by the undertaking for workers' education, the creation or upkeep of

first-aid rooms in the factories, etc. The question of the provision of working clothes and the problem of annual holidays also caused a higher proportion of disputes in 1925 than in 1924.

The distribution by cause of disputes in the second category — most of these also had several causes — was as follows :

DISTRIBUTION BY CAUSE OF DISPUTES ARISING OUT OF LABOUR CONDITIONS

Cause of dispute	Percentage of disputes		Percentage of workers involved in disputes	
	1924	1925	1924	1925
Wages	57.4	66.2	42.7	43.3
Wage scales	19.8	20.4	22.2	18.4
Arrears	3.3	1.2	6.3	1.4
Miscellaneous	31.7	38.0	14.7	24.5
Payments to be made by undertakings	1.2	0.8	11.7	14.6
Engagement and dismissal	18.6	18.8	0.7	1.1
Protection of the workers	6.8	6.2	39.9	31.8

Procedure

Disputes, especially those arising out of the conclusion of collective agreements, were settled much more frequently by arbitration than by conciliation. In 1925, in fact, only 15.4 per cent. of the disputes in the first category, involving 17.5 per cent. of the workers affected by these disputes (22.8 per cent. of disputes with 5.3 per cent. of workers in 1924) were definitely settled by the conciliation boards. All the others were finally settled by the arbitration court, and 69.8 per cent. of the disputes were in fact directly submitted to arbitration, one or both of the parties having objected to the use of conciliation procedure.

For disputes in the second category, recourse to arbitration, though relatively rarer, is also tending to become more frequent, and in addition it is especially the more important disputes which are submitted to this procedure. Thus in 1925, only 39.2 per cent. of the disputes, involving 13.5 per cent. of the workers affected by disputes in this category (48.8 per cent. of disputes with 51.5 per cent. of workers in 1924), were settled by conciliation. All the other disputes were finally settled by arbitration. Further, 45.7 per cent. of these disputes, involving 78.6 per cent. of the workers affected (33.8 per cent. of disputes with 34.3 per cent. of workers in 1924), were directly submitted to arbitration.

This growing preponderance of arbitration is causing some uneasiness to responsible trade unionists and the Commissariat of Labour, who consider conciliation procedure preferable for the smooth working of industry and in the interests of the workers themselves.

Results of Disputes

As most of the disputes have several causes, a tabular statement of the results is more instructive if the calculations are based not on the disputes but on the separate causes behind the disputes.

For disputes in the first category, the results of disputes relating to wage scales — the cause, as already seen, of the highest percentage of disputes — were as follows :

Result of dispute	Percentage of disputes		Percentage of workers involved	
	1924	1925	1924	1925
In favour of workers	33.0	29.9	23.3	9.3
In favour of employers[1]	20.9	17.0	7.5	9.1
Compromise	46.1	53.1	69.2	81.6

[1] Either the state or private persons. In most cases state undertakings are concerned.

As regards the other points in dispute relating to wages (overtime, etc.), 36 per cent. of the cases were settled in favour of the workers in 1925, 29 per cent. in favour of the employers, and 35 per cent. by compromise. The latter group alone included more than half the workers involved in the disputes.

Disputes concerning payments to be made by the employer were settled as follows in 1925 :

Object of payments	Percentage of disputes settled		
	In favour of workers	In favour of employers	By compromise
Factory committees	55.3	17.2	27.5
Workers' education	44.0	23.1	32.9
Medical aid	36.8	29.2	34.0

Disputes concerning indemnities for dismissed workers or compensation for workers unable to use their annual leave were settled as follows : 45.7 per cent. in favour of the workers and 31.3 per cent. in favour of the employer.

Finally, the results of disputes in 1925 relating to the protection of the workers were as follows :

Cause of dispute	Percentage of disputes settled	
	In favour of workers	In favour of employers
Hours of work	47.4	31.6
Working clothes	40.9	37.6
Annual holidays	33.5	47.2

Disputes in the second category relating to wages scales were settled as follows :

Result of dispute	Percentage of disputes		Percentage of workers involved	
	1924	1925	1924	1925
In favour of workers	46.7	50.2	53.1	45.7
In favour of employers	28.7	26.6	20.1	19.7
Compromise	24.6	23.2	26.8	34.6

It will be noticed that the percentage of disputes in this category

settled in favour of the workers has increased, while the proportion of workers who secured a satisfactory result has diminished; the main reason for this is that in important disputes settlements by compromise were more frequent in 1925 than in 1924. The other disputes relating to wages (compensation, overtime, etc.) were settled as follows: 55.4 per cent. in favour of the workers and 26.6 per cent. in favour of the employer, affecting in the first case 43.6 per cent. and in the second case 26.6 per cent. of the workers involved.

The great majority of the disputes relating to payments to be made by undertakings for the expenses of works committees and for workers' education were settled in favour of the workers. Disputes concerning medical aid (first-aid rooms, dental clinics, etc. attached to factories), on the contrary, were in most cases settled in favour of the employer or by compromise. Those relating to hours of work were generally settled in favour of the workers (51.8 per cent. of disputes with 99.4 per cent. of the workers involved). Of disputes relating to annual holidays, 61.8 per cent. (with 36.3 per cent. of the workers involved) were settled in favour of the workers, about 25 per cent. (with about 25 per cent. of the workers involved) in favour of the employer, and the rest by compromise. Finally, the results of disputes in 1925 over questions of engagement and dismissal were as follows:

Result of dispute	Percentage of disputes	Percentage of workers involved
In favour of workers	59.8	54.4
In favour of employers	35.9	40.1
Compromise	4.3	5.5

Unemployment in Denmark from 1910 to 1925

The Danish Labour Gazette[1] has recently published a survey by Mr. H. Höst of unemployment in Denmark for the period 1910-1925, based on the reports of the Statistical Department for 1910-1914, 1915-1919, 1920-1924, and 1925.

It is pointed out that the majority of organised workers are covered, with a few unimportant changes from year to year, but municipal employees, railwaymen, and similar groups in which unemployment is practically non-existent, are not included. No account is taken of unemployment due to participation in labour disputes, nor of short time.

The annual unemployment percentages for all workers were as follows:

Year	Per cent.	Year	Per cent.	Year	Per cent.
1910	10.7	1916	5.1	1922	19.3
1911	9.5	1917	9.7	1923	12.7
1912	7.6	1918	18.1	1924	10.7
1913	7.5	1919	10.9	1925	14.7
1914	9.9	1920	6.4		
1915	8.1	1921	19.7		

[1] *Socialt Tidsskrift*, July-Aug. 1926.

The percentage varied considerably from year to year, but there were also marked fluctuations during the year. A comparison of the monthly unemployment percentages, however, is hampered by the seasonal fluctuations (comparatively high percentages in winter and low percentages in summer). In the table below these fluctuations have been eliminated by giving the figures for each month as percentages of the average of the figures for the same month in the years 1910 to 1913, which period is regarded as normal. The assumption is therefore that the seasonal fluctuations are the same from year to year, which is obviously not quite correct as they must vary with the climatic conditions of the year. But in view of the marked annual fluctuations these differences in the seasonal fluctuations are unimportant.

UNEMPLOYMENT PERCENTAGES, 1914-1925, IN RELATION TO THE AVERAGE OF THE 1910-1913 PERCENTAGES

Month	Average 1910-1913	1914	1915	1916	1917	1918	1919	1920	1921	1922	1923	1924	1925
Jan.	100	99	104	65	58	153	156	81	118	172	120	119	92
Feb.	100	87	105	83	82	177	175	61	155	221	149	141	106
March	100	99	141	97	133	212	216	70	242	344	162	174	153
April	100	91	88	73	77	221	161	58	297	336	167	126	—[1]
May	100	81	75	49	65	228	107	47	298	263	156	104	—[1]
June	100	80	70	42	74	252	72	42	322	258	162	100	182
July	100	80	78	42	88	260	56	52	322	242	150	108	166
Aug.	100	212	82	47	114	292	65	61	339	233	163	114	200
Sept.	100	228	81	45	140	315	68	74	355	228	164	123	225
Oct.	100	170	72	35	157	250	63	77	293	202	133	117	225
Nov.	100	125	84	37	166	196	75	96	226	167	132	101	223
Dec.	100	105	78	41	163	172	102	97	170	130	124	108	201
Whole year	100	113	92	58	110	206	124	73	224	219	144	122	167

[1] The general labour dispute.

In the first half of 1914 unemployment was slightly below the normal, but it rose considerably immediately after the outbreak of the war, falling again to the normal towards the end of the year. The two following years were prosperous and in the second half of 1916 unemployment was well below half the normal figure. In 1917 conditions became difficult owing to the shortage of raw materials and fuel, which led to severe unemployment in 1918. A decided improvement set in after the Armistice in November 1918, and during 1919 and the first half of 1920 unemployment fell heavily, a tendency to which the rise in prices contributed. About the middle of 1920 the percentage was only half the normal, but it then began to rise, slowly in the second half of the year, very rapidly in 1921, owing to the heavy fall in prices which had by that time reached Denmark. During the greater part of 1922 unemployment remained well above the normal, but towards the end of the year there was an improvement when prices began to rise again.

This rise continued in 1923 and 1924, and unemployment fell, so that by the second half of 1924 it was only slightly above the normal. In 1925 there was again a change in the direction of the price movement, and in spring the great labour dispute broke out, which was not settled until the beginning of June. After the end of the dispute the fall in prices continued (the wholesale price index number fell from 243 in January to 176 in December), and unemployment rose considerably, being over twice the normal figure in the second half of the year. Conditions became even worse in 1926 : during the spring months the unemployment percentage was about three times the normal figure.

It should be remembered that the figures in the table show the ratio of unemployment in the months in question to the unemployment in the corresponding month during a period when conditions were normal; the very high figures for the summer months of 1921, for instance, do not mean that unemployment was highest then, considered absolutely, but only that it was 3 to 3½ times as high as the normal figure for that period of the year. In absolute figures the maximum was reached in February 1922 with a percentage of 34.2.

The above account will have shown that unemployment is very dependent on the level of prices, the fluctuations in which during the period under consideration may be attributed partly to changes in the level of world prices and partly to changes in the Danish rate of exchange. As the chief cause of the recent fall in prices has been the rise in the value of the Krone, and as the Krone has now apparently been stabilised at about par, it may be expected that employment conditions will tend to return to the normal, according as retail prices and therefore wages and other labour costs are brought to the wholesale price level.

Information on unemployment in the principal trade unions is given in the table on page 457 showing the percentage for each of the years from 1914 to 1925 and the average for the period 1910-1913. Both during and after the war special conditions have prevailed in some trades (special transport difficulties, severe foreign competition, emergency measures, etc.), as will appear from the figures.

Finally, it should be observed that a comparison of the annual unemployment percentages, whether for the individual trades or for the workers as a whole, is not altogether reliable, owing to the substantial changes in the membership of the unions. In the years preceding 1920 there was a large rise, partly due to special legislation which both increased the unemployment benefit and facilitated admission to benefit, and in 1921-1922 the membership fell again owing to the exclusion of workers not directly connected with the trade concerned. Since 1922 there have been no important changes in membership.

Trade union	1925	1924	1923	1922	1921	1920	1919	1918	1917	1916	1915	1914	Average 1910-1913
Millers	6.3	2.6	5.0	12.8	9.4	3.2	4.2	5.5	3.8	1.3	1.9	3.7	4.6
Bakers and pastrycooks	23.6	20.2	20.6	22.0	20.6	20.5	22.0	25.8	13.8	7.0	7.1	9.3	15.6
Sweet, chocolate, and biscuit makers	10.6	5.6	8.4	12.6	14.0	3.3	6.8	26.1	8.3	1.8	2.3	6.7	5.7
Brewers, etc.	4.3	3.5	8.5	6.0	5.6	1.9	2.4	14.3	4.9	0.5	1.0	0.7	0.8
Butchers	9.2	6.6	7.5	9.6	14.4	7.8	30.3	30.7	3.7	2.4	2.0	0.8	2.6
Tobacco workers	18.3	13.3	11.6	36.4	47.6	7.7	7.3	32.1	5.1	2.0	1.9	5.9	6.8
Textile workers	15.0	8.4	9.4	7.2	30.5	5.9	10.9	43.8	8.4	0.8	2.1	6.2	3.0
Tailors	8.3	4.9	7.7	10.6	11.4	2.5	9.5	26.4	7.3	3.7	6.5	6.7	3.7
Hatters	18.0	6.5	7.9	11.1	21.8	3.0	7.6	12.2	4.4	12.4	14.6	18.0	7.4
Shoemakers	9.0	4.9	6.1	15.5	22.5	2.7	7.1	6.9	1.9	1.2	2.3	3.4	4.4
Masons	26.0	20.5	18.6	27.6	39.0	18.1	19.9	18.8	24.0	15.8	21.9	17.6	16.4
Carpenters	23.0	17.0	14.4	26.0	32.2	12.2	8.0	9.3	7.9	5.3	13.1	11.8	14.4
Ships' carpenters	24.5	14.8	25.7	33.5	26.1	2.7	0.7	3.6	2.7	0.8	2.9	6.5	8.9
Cabinet makers	23.9	16.7	18.2	39.3	44.3	9.9	5.7	5.4	3.8	3.7	12.0	13.5	13.1
Painters	22.6	18.0	17.4	25.4	27.0	16.8	26.4	41.6	21.6	14.2	18.8	22.3	20.8
Saddlers and upholsterers	13.2	9.0	12.7	24.1	30.6	10.1	18.3	17.4	6.8	3.4	3.4	9.3	11.3
Wood workers	11.7	8.4	11.1	25.7	29.2	5.5	5.6	7.4	5.6	2.6	4.2	6.0	6.6
Coopers	10.9	9.8	14.3	16.4	17.6	6.3	18.1	37.1	12.5	2.9	2.5	6.4	5.2
Coach builders	8.0	4.6	6.9	14.5	14.4	3.7	3.0	4.3	3.8	1.5	3.2	4.8	3.1
Leather and fur workers	20.6	10.2	7.8	—	35.3	5.5	4.7	5.1	2.3	1.4	1.8	3.2	2.8
Potters	3.1	2.2	5.1	14.4	15.1	1.1	4.0	2.3	0.5	0.8	3.3	1.9	1.2
Glass workers	9.5	8.4	18.6	32.6	49.5	11.5	11.4	22.2	34.7	3.3	1.9	4.1	1.5
Goldsmiths, silversmiths, and electroplate workers	16.8	12.4	11.8	22.4	31.5	3.0	1.7	1.9	0.7	0.7	1.6	5.0	2.0
Tinsmiths	17.0	8.7	10.9	15.1	24.4	5.9	12.0	17.7	5.2	2.6	5.6	5.6	7.1
Smiths and engineers	15.5	11.0	19.8	29.3	25.6	4.6	8.6	13.2	5.6	1.5	2.1	4.8	6.1
Moulders	12.4	7.4	14.7	42.8	47.1	6.7	18.5	15.2	13.5	8.9	6.6	13.0	11.7
Electricians	24.7	19.3	20.1	27.9	25.2	4.4	8.5	12.1	4.2	3.0	4.8	3.0	5.1
Paper workers	1.4	2.5	3.3	6.0	12.3	0.9	2.5	2.3	0.8	0.3	0.2	0.8	0.3
Bookbinders	13.8	8.2	9.2	14.8	23.2	3.0	3.4	5.8	2.4	1.6	7.3	9.9	6.0
Printers	11.4	11.5	13.9	15.2	15.9	6.4	1.4	3.5	4.2	3.2	6.5	6.9	5.2
General workers	15.2	11.7	12.8	20.2	18.5	6.9	13.0	19.6	15.4	8.3	11.2	14.2	10.7
Agricultural workers	8.2	6.6	6.2	7.6	4.3	4.2	10.0	7.0	—	—	—	—	—
Boiler and machine minders	7.8	5.0	6.4	10.1	9.3	2.2	3.0	5.2	2.9	1.6	2.1	2.6	2.5
Women	11.4	6.8	9.7	14.2	9.4	3.5	16.9	30.9	10.5	2.7	3.6	4.3	2.8
Clerks and shop assistants	9.4	8.4	9.6	9.1	3.4	1.1	2.9	5.8	2.1	1.6	—	—	—

STATISTICS

Employment and Prices

In the tables below are given for various countries the most recent statistics of employment and unemployment and of the cost of living and retail prices in comparison with those for previous dates.

Employment and Unemployment

Table I giving unemployment statistics shows for certain countries the percentage of workers unemployed. In some cases these percentages are based on data compiled by the trade unions in respect of their members, while in other cases they refer to the workers covered by unemployment insurance laws. For some countries for which no such data are available information is given as to the numbers registered at various dates at the employment exchanges as unemployed or the number of unemployed workers who have received assistance. Table II gives index numbers of employment for certain countries.

In the *Review* for July 1924 and later months an outline was given of the methods by which the statistics given in the tables are compiled, together with particulars of the original sources in which they are published.

TABLE I. STATISTICS OF UNEMPLOYMENT

Date (end of month)	Germany					Australia		Belgium			
	Trade unionists					Trade unionists		Unemployment insurance societies			
	Wholly unemployed		Partially unemployed		Number of unemployed in receipt of benefit	Number unemployed	Per cent.	Wholly unemployed		Partially unemployed	
	Number	Per cent.	Number	Per cent.				Number	Per cent.	Number	Per cent.
1926											
Jan.	815,434	22.6	818,637	22.6	2,030,646	•	•	16,159	2.7	32,017	5.4
Feb.	786,263	22.0	771,405	21.6	2,055,428	•	•	9,616	1.6	18,209	3.1
March	727,312	21.4	736,649	21.7	1,942,011	34,161	8.2	8,489	1.4	16,573	2.8
April	655,537	18.6	673,993	19.1	1,781,152	•	•	7,395	1.2	11,803	2.0
May	639,751	18.1	641,780	18.2	1,744,126	•	•	6,075	1.1	12,643	2.1
June	627,196	18.1	591,536	17.1	1,740,754	24,920	6.7	5,200	0.9	13,148	2.2
July	599,617	17.7	563,823	16.6	1,652,281	•	•	5,158	0.9	10,233	1.7
Aug.	567,541	16.7	511,685	15.0	1,548,138	•	•	7,268	1.2	16,530	2.8
Sept.	513,864	15.2	427,380	12.7	1,394,062	32,871	7.6	6,818	1.1	14,821	2.5
Oct.	476,952	14.2	343,303	10.2	1,308,293	•	•	8,088	1.4	13,295	2.2
Nov.	484,978	14.2	284,774	8.3	1,369,768	•	•	8,217	1.4	14,907	2.5
Dec.	572,653	16.7	249,628	7.3	1,748,597	—	—	15,731	2.7	17,815	3.0
1927											
Jan.	581,108	17.1	233,529	6.9	1,825,931	•	•	—	—	—	—
Number on which latest percentages are based	3,393,237				•	434,521		591,951			

The sign • signifies "no figures published". The sign — signifies "figures not yet received".

TABLE I *(cont.)*

Date (end of month)	Austria	Canada		Denmark		Esthonia	Finland	France
	Compulsory insurance	Trade unionists		Trade union unemployment funds				
	Number unemployed in receipt of benefit	Number unemployed	Per cent.	Number unemployed	Per cent.	Number unemployed remaining on live register	Number of unemployed registered	Number unemployed in receipt of benefit
1926								
Jan.	231,361	11,906[1]	8.1	81,100[1]	30.1	3,543	3,832	547
Feb.	228,763	11,993[1]	8.1	74,100[1]	27.5	2,444	3,462	713
March	202,394	11,069	7.3	57,700[1]	21.4	1,916	2,222	543
April	173,115	11,093	7.3	44,700[1]	16.6	2,249	1,961	442
May	15 ,821	7,442	4.9	39,900[1]	14.8	1,839	1,273	386
June	150,981	5,965	4.1	42,600[1]	15.8	1,051	924	489
July	152,495	3,226[1]	2.3	45,800[1]	17.0	893	949	342
Aug.	151,054	3,384[1]	2.5	46,900[1]	17.0	731	1,212	369
Sept.	148,111	4,837	3.3	45,300[1]	16.5	811	1,325	335
Oct.	151,183	3,929[1]	2.6	49,800[1]	18.5	2,309	1,813	429
Nov.	168,757	7,032[1]	4.7	59,800[1]	22.6	4,157	2,330	571
Dec.	205,350	—	5.9	88,700[1]	32.7	3,807	2,172	17,178
1927								
Jan.	235,464	—	—	87.100[1]	32.1	4,718	—	56,275
Number on which latest percentages are based	•	149,627		271,287		•	•	•

TABLE I *(cont.)*

Date (end of month)	Great Britain and Northern Ireland				Hungary		Irish Free State		Italy	
	Trade unionists		Compulsory insurance		Trade unionists		Compulsory insurance		Number of unemployed registered	
	Number unemployed	Per cent.	Number unemployed	Per cent.	Number unemployed	Per cent.	Number unemployed	Per cent.	Wholly unempl.	Partially unempl.
1926										
Jan.	103,051	10.6	1,317,535	11.0	28,378	17.4	38,161	15.0	156,139	9,284
Feb.	101,870	10.4	1,247,823	10.4	29,135	18.7	38,670	15.2	125,803	8,016
March	99,271	10.1	1,171,136	9.8	29,218	19.1	34,331	13.5	109,471	8,333
April	•	10.0	1,093,829	9.1	28,776	18.8	32,935	13.0	98,216	6,793
May	109,947	13.2	1,719,369	14.3	27,598	18.5	32,668	12.8	98,490	8,600
June	107,597	12.9	1,751,133	14.6	25,558	16.7	31,248	12.3	83,264	6,650
July	108,030	13.2	1,737 260	14.6	24,041	15.7	27,740	11.3	79,678	26,756
Aug.	110,520	13.3	1,684,507	14.2	22,756	15.0	25,390	10.3	83,090	26,634
Sept.	112,782	13.6	1,648,322	13.9	19,849	13.1	25,063	10.2	89,434	14,519
Oct.	112,195	13.6	1,636,886	13.6	18,680	12.4	25,499	10.4	112,922	10,839
Nov.	108,202	13.2	1,630,142	13.5	18,576	12.3	26,984	11.0	148,821	6 618
Dec.	97,671	12.2	1,431,840	11.9	20,712	13.0	27,014	11.0	181,493	12,216
1927										
Jan.	•	•	1,451,103	12.1	20,420	13.4	29,046	11.8	225,346	83,716
Number on which latest percentages are based	801,878		12,041,000		153,000		246,134		•	

[1] Approximate figures. [2] Provisional figures.

The sign • signifies "no figures published". The sign — signifies "figures not yet received".

TABLE I (*cont.*)

Date (end of month)	Latvia	Norway		New Zealand		Netherlands	
	Number unemployed remaining on live register	Trade unionists (10 unions)		Trade unionists		Unemployment insurance societies	
		Number unemployed	Per cent.	Number unemployed	Per cent.	Number unemployed	Per cent.
1926							
Jan.	4,990	9,066	25.5	•	•	49,633	17.7
Feb.	4,702	8,923	25.0	2,357	5.0	28,999	10.5
March	3,659	9,237	25.9	•	•	22,338	7.9
April	2,000	9,212	26.0	•	•	18,414	6.5
May	1,383	8,316	23.7	3,049	6.6	17,904	6.3
June	936	7,751	22.1	•	•	16,983	5.9
July	722	7,137	20.4	•	•	19,683	6.9
Aug.	897	7,462	21.4	3,912	8.3	20,805	7.2
Sept.	932	7,719	22.3	•	•	20,695	7.2
Oct.	2,430	8,425	24.4	•	•	21,341	7.4
Nov.	5,224	—	24.9	3,172	6.7	25,899	8.9
Dec.	5,239	—	—	•	•	37,471 [2]	13.0 [2]
1927							
Janv.	5,026	—	—		•	—	—
Number on which latest percentages are based	•	34,459		47,147		289,349 [1]	

TABLE I (*cont.*)

Date (end of month)	Poland	Russia	Sweden		Switzerland		Czechoslovakia	
	Number unemployed registered	Number unemployed remaining on live register	Trade unionists		Number wholly unemployed registered	Unemployment funds	Trade union insurance funds	
			Number unemployed	Per cent.		Per cent. unemployed	Number unemployed in receipt of benefit	Per cent.
1926								
Jan.	359,119	988,000	34,601	15.8	20,525	•	22,738	2.1
Feb.	358,002	1,005,600	32,695	14.4	18,138	•	25,333	2.3
March	345,011	1,056,400	34,712	14.7	14,307	2.7	27,535	2.5
April	320,512	1,070,900	29,220	12.2	11,320	•	30,056	2.7
May	304,113	1,114,200	22,413	9.7	10,703	•	33,670	3.0
June	288,510	1,065,500	22,715	9.5	10,272	2.4	40,034	3.4
July	263,540	1,030,100	20,206	8.5	11,013	•	46,052	4.1
Aug.	241,790	1,023,700	19,511	8.2	11,818	•	46,129	4.0
Sept.	213,690	1,070,990	22,114	9.1	12,803	2.8	42,601	3.7
Oct.	196,586	1,163,400	28,390	11.4	14,253	•	35,948	—
Nov.	200,567	—	33,193	12.9	16,366	•	29,020	—
Dec.	236,057	—	47,614	19.0	17,900	5.6	29,995	—
1927								
Jan.	751,702	—	—	16.1	19,370	•	—	—
Number on which latest percentages are based	•	•	249,968		•	178,975	1,151,146	

[1] Figures for November. [2] Provisional figures.

The sign • signifies " no figures published ". The sign — signifies " figures not yet received ".

TABLE II. STATISTICS OF EMPLOYMENT

Date (end of month)	Germany[1]	Canada[1]	Esthonia	United States	Switzerland
	Index number of employment				
	Membership of sickness funds in Dec. 1921 = 100	Number employed on 17 Jan. 1920 = 100	Number employed in preceding month = 100	Average number employed in 1923 = 100	Number employed in Sept. 1924 = 100
1925					
March	103.6	87.2	•	92.3	94.1
June	109.6	96.8	•	90.1	98.8
Sept.	108.6	98.3	•	90.9	96.1
Dec.	96.4	89.6	•	92.6	94.8
1926					
Jan.	93.4	90.7	100.0	92.3	•
Feb.	93.4	91.5	101.2	93.3	•
March	94.3	91.4	99.6	93.7	95.2
April	97.7	94.3	97.9	92.8	•
May	98.8	101.0	106.0	91.7	•
June	98.9	103.7	100.9	91.3	96.5
July	99.2	104.2	—	89.8	•
Aug.	99.8	104.9	—	90.7	•
Sept.	100.4	105.2	—	92.2	95.3
Oct.	101.2	102.8	—	92 5	•
Nov.	101.2	101 1	—	91.4	•
Dec.	96.4	94.8	—	—	93.6
1927					
Jan.	—	—	—	—	•
Number of persons on which latest figures are based	13,453,436	781,559	32,874	3,026,330	174,484

[1] The figures relate to the 1st of the following month.

The sign • signifies "no figures published". The sign — signifies "figures not yet received".

Cost of Living and Retail Prices

Tables I to V give for a number of countries index numbers of the cost of living, food, clothing, heating and lighting, and rent. The sources and methods of compilation of the statistics are given in the *Review* for July 1924 and later months.

Poland: *Wiadomosci Statystyczne.*

The method of calculating the rent index number has been modified as from January 1927 onwards. The calculations will in future be based on the rent of two rooms and a kitchen, instead of one room and a kitchen, as formerly. In consequence the general index numbers of the cost of living have been recalculated from April 1926 onwards so as to take account of this modification.

TABLE I. COST-OF-LIVING INDEX NUMBERS

(Base, as far as possible, July 1914 = 100)

Country	South Africa (Union)	Germany	Australia	Austria [1]	Belgium [2]	Bulgaria	Canada	Chile [3]	Denmark	Danzig	Egypt
Towns and localities	9	72	6	Vienna	59	12	60	Chile	100	Danzig	Cairo
1926 Jan.	131	140	*	100	139	2852	154	185	194	135	162
Feb.	131	139	*	99	140	2849	154	179	*	134	163
Mar.	131	138	158	98	137	2796	153	179	*	132	163
April	131	140	*	98	140	2726	152	179	*	134	162
May	132	140	*	97	147	2888	150	181	*	133	161
June	131	140	162	99	155	2793	150	183	*	133	159
July	130	142	*	98	174	2790	150	190	184	137	159
Aug.	130	142	*	99	182	2712	149	192	*	135	161
Sept.	130	142	159	99	179	2677	148	187	*	135	160
Oct.	131	142	*	99	188	2662	150	186	*	135	161
Nov.	131	144	*	99	196	—	151	184	*	136	156
Dec.	129	144	—	100	199	—	152	—	*	139	156
1927 Jan.	—	145	*	101	202	—	—	—	181	—	—

Country	Esthonia [4]	United States [3]	Finland	France	Great Britain	Greece	Hungary [5]	India	Irish Free State	Italy	Latvia	Lithuania [3]
Towns and localities	Tallinn	32	21	Paris	630	Athens	Budapest	Bombay	105	Milan	Riga	84
1926 Jan.	135	*	1166	*	173	1673	14,418	154	188	665	118	142
Feb.	135	*	1175	*	172	1664	14,625	155	*	661	118	142
Mar.	134	*	1172	451	168	1706	14,728	153	*	654	118	142
April	136	*	1163	*	167	1731	14,512	153	180	642	117	140
May	136	*	1159	*	168	1741	14,623	155	*	652	119	141
June	136	175	1175	485	170	1791	14,704	157	*	650	119	141
July	136	*	1183	*	170	1808	14,823	155	182	649	118	140
Aug.	135	*	1213	*	172	1818	14,538	155	*	652	115	139
Sept.	130	*	1203	539	174	1833	14,593	155	*	647	112	139
Oct.	129	*	1197	*	179	1862	14,883	154	189	672	112	139
Nov.	129	*	1193	*	179	1895	15,293	156	*	657	111	141
Dec.	130	—	1197	545	175	1889	15,204	156	*	657	114	143
1927 Jan.	—	*	1187	*	172	—	—	155	—	655	*	—

Country	Luxemburg	Norway	New Zealand	Netherlands [6]	Peru [3]	Poland	Roumania	Russia [3]	Sweden	Switzerland	Czechoslovakia
Towns and localities	Luxemburg	31	4	Amsterdam	Lima	Warsaw	Whole country	229	49	33	Prague
1926 Jan.	533	*	*	*	197	170	3335	220	*	166	707
Feb.	522	*	162	*	194	171	3320	225	*	164	699
Mar.	527	227	*	169	196	169	3810	229	173	163	687
April	546	*	*	*	193	177	3327	239	*	162	685
May	578	*	163	*	195	185	3370	233	*	162	692
June	609	221	*	171	197	184	3436	227	172	162	693
July	686	*	*	*	194	178	3340	228	*	162	718
Aug.	688	*	163	*	195	182	3455	222	*	161	722
Sept.	711	217	*	164	190	189	3460	220	171	161	722
Oct.	727	*	*	*	188	193	3600	224	*	161	726
Nov	734	*	162	*	189	197	3700	225	*	161	734
Dec.	746	213	*	168	189	199	3760	223	171	161	735
1927 Jan.	756	*	*	*	—	202	—	—	*	160	—

1925 = 100. [2] 1921 = 100. [3] 1913 = 100. [4] 1922 = 100. [5] 1913 = 1. [6] 1911-1913 = 100.
The sign * signifies " no figures published ". The sign — signifies " figures not yet received ".

TABLE II. FOOD INDEX NUMBERS

(Base, as far as possible, July 1914 = 100)

Country	South Africa (Union)	Germany	Australia	Austria [1]	Belgium [2]	Bulgaria	Canada	Denmark	Egypt	Spain	Esthonia [3]
Towns and localities	9	72	30	Vienna	59	12	60	100	Cairo	Madrid	Tallinn
1926 Jan.	116	142	*	100	142	2853	155	177	161	188	137
Feb.	117	142	*	98	142	2855	154	*	159	183	138
Mar.	118	141	159	96	138	2799	153	*	161	185	136
April	119	142	*	96	142	2731	152	*	161	187	139
May	119	142	*	95	152	2909	149	*	160	183	139
June	118	143	162	98	161	2808	149	*	157	183	139
July	117	145	*	97	185	2803	150	159	158	186	139
Aug.	117	146	*	98	193	2720	147	*	159	178	138
Sept.	117	150	156	98	186	2680	147	*	157	187	128
Oct.	120	145	*	98	197	2662	148	*	160	190	127
Nov.	119	148	*	99	206	—	151	*	157	191	127
Dec.	117	150	—	100	208	—	153	*	157	193	128
1927 Jan.	—	151	*	100	208	—	—	156	—	—	—

Country	United States	Finland	France	Great Britain	Greece	Hungary [4]	India	Irish Free State	Italy
Towns and localities	51	21	Paris	630	Athens	Budapest	Bombay	105	Milan
1926 Jan.	160	1090	480	168	1760	16,087	150	187	681
Feb.	158	1106	495	165	1738	16,471	151	*	676
Mar.	156	1100	497	159	1805	16,668	150	*	654
April	159	1085	503	158	1821	16,322	150	175	645
May	157	1078	522	158	1817	16,122	152	*	664
June	156	1090	544	161	1870	16,298	155	*	657
July	153	1105	574	161	1849	16,546	153	174	654
Aug.	152	1153	587	162	1871	15,997	152	*	660
Sept.	155	1137	590	163	1890	16,189	153	*	652
Oct.	156	1126	624	169	1933	16,431	152	178	654
Nov.	158	1114	628	169	1986	16,783	154	*	630
Dec.	158	1110	599	167	1973	16,622	155	*	631
1927 Jan.	—	1092	592	164	—	—	152	—	625

Country	Latvia	Norway	New Zealand	Peru [5]	Poland	Russia [5]	Sweden	Switzerland	Czechoslovakia
Towns and localities	Riga	31	4	Lima	Warsaw	229	49	33	Prague
1926 Jan.	103	216	154	175	191	205	161	165	800
Feb.	103	212	153	170	195	211	159	163	787
Mar.	103	205	152	171	189	212	158	161	767
April	101	198	151	166	204	225	157	161	761
May	103	195	151	169	214	218	156	159	774
June	103	194	151	172	213	212	156	159	775
July	103	198	149	172	207	213	156	159	808
Aug.	97	196	149	174	213	204	155	157	817
Sept.	94	193	148	167	227	200	156	158	816
Oct.	92	191	147	164	232	—	155	160	823
Nov.	91	186	146	166	244	—	155	159	837
Dec.	94	184	149	167	247	—	155	159	840
1927 Jan.	—	—	—	—	247	—	153	158	—

[1] 1925 = 100. [2] 1921 = 100. [3] 1922 = 100. [4] 1913 = 1. [5] 1913 = 100.
The sign * signifies " no figures published ". The sign — signifies " figures not yet received ".

TABLES III TO V. INDEX NUMBERS OF CLOTHING, HEATING AND LIGHTING, AND RENT

Country	Germany	Austria[1]	Belgium[2]	Canada	Denmark	Spain	Esthonia[3]	United States	Finland	France	Great Britain	Hungary[4]	India	Irish Free State	Italy	Latvia	Norway	New Zealand	Poland	Russia[5]	Sweden	Switzerland	Czechoslovakia
Towns and localities	72	Vienna	50	60	100	Madrid	Tallinn	32	21	Paris	630	Budapest	Bombay	105	Milan	Riga	31	4	Warsaw	229	49	33	Prague
TABLE III. CLOTHING INDEX NUMBERS *(Base, as far as possible, July 1914 = 100)*																							
1926 Jan.	171	100	144	•	230	•	119	•	1043	•	225	16,024	172	206	702	122	•	•	251	289	•	179	1001
Feb	69	100	145	•	•	•	119	•	1043	•	225	18,552	174	•	702	122	•	157	251	290	•	179	1001
Mar.	168	99	144	•	•	•	119	•	1044	524	223	18,552	175	•	702	122	213	•	251	299	188	179	994
April	167	99	145	•	•	•	119	•	1049	•	223	18,702	170	205	702	122	•	•	251	302	•	172	994
May	165	99	151	•	•	•	119	•	1049	•	223	18,273	162	•	691	122	•	156	272	303	•	172	994
June	164	99	155	•	•	•	118	168	1047	577	220	18,273	160	•	692	122	207	•	272	301	187	172	994
July	162	99	167	•	210	•	118	•	1044	•	210	18,273	160	205	692	122	•	•	254	300	•	172	994
Aug.	161	99	173	•	•	•	118	•	1039	•	220	18,273	160	•	692	122	•	154	254	298	•	172	994
Sept	160	98	179	•	•	•	118	•	1039	635	210	17,915	159	•	692	122	200	•	256	299	184	172	994
Oct.	160	98	186	•	•	•	118	•	1037	•	218	17,915	156	205	711	122	•	•	256	—	•	166	982
Nov.	158	98	191	•	•	•	118	•	1035	•	218	17,915	148	•	709	122	•	154	256	—	•	166	982
Dec.	158	98	199	•	•	•	—	—	1035	616	218	—	143	•	709	122	191	•	256	—	182	166	982
1927 Jan.	157	98	203	•	196	•	—	•	1025	•	215	—	—	—	705	—	•	•	256	—	•	166	—
TABLE IV. HEATING AND LIGHTING INDEX NUMBERS *(Base, as far as possible, July 1914 = 100)*																							
1926 Jan.	143	100	114	184	217	171	91	•	1254	•	185	18,014	165	197	516	367	•	•	170	212	172	149	807
Feb	143	100	116	180	•	173	92	•	1243	•	185	17,926	165	•	505	367	•	176	160	217	171	148	807
Mar.	143	100	115	179	•	168	92	•	1248	447	185	17,926	165	•	505	367	208	•	165	234	170	147	805
April	142	99	116	180	•	169	92	•	1248	•	185	17,674	164	195	505	367	•	•	160	238	170	146	805
May	140	99	118	177	•	171	92	•	1270	•	190	17,674	164	•	505	367	•	176	161	226	167	145	805
June	140	97	129	176	•	176	92	181	1254	452	195	17,580	164	•	512	367	201	•	160	214	168	145	805
July	141	99	142	175	215	177	88	•	1258	•	200	17,506	164	234	512	367	•	•	158	217	167	145	805
Aug.	141	100	159	175	•	174	92	•	1242	•	215	17,506	164	•	512	367	•	177	176	226	166	144	805
Sept.	143	100	163	176	•	177	95	•	1257	541	230	17,506	164	•	512	367	208	•	182	233	166	144	810
Oct.	144	103	179	176	•	172	95	•	1276	•	255	18,933	164	293	565	358	•	•	196	—	170	145	814
Nov.	144	105	197	177	•	182	94	•	1349	•	250	19,394	166	•	565	359	•	177	188	—	188	146	814
Dec.	144	105	206	—	•	189	—	—	1389	577	215	—	166	•	565	410	237	•	188	—	186	146	814
1927 Jan.	145	107	204	—	230	—	—	•	1404	•	210	—	—	—	627	—	—	•	192	—	184	146	—
TABLE V. RENT INDEX NUMBERS *(Base, as far as possible, July 1914 = 100)*																							
1926 Jan.	91	100	153	142	178	•	175	•	1266	•	148	6,597	172	127	477	80	•	•	72	•	•	163	250
Feb.	91	102	153	143	•	•	175	•	1266	•	148	6,960	172	•	477	80	•	174	72	•	•	163	250
Mar.	91	105	153	143	•	•	175	•	1266	220	148	6,960	172	•	477	80	179	•	72	•	188	163	250
April	97	105	154	142	•	•	175	•	1266	•	149	6,960	172	127	477	80	•	•	76	•	•	163	256
May	99	109	154	143	•	•	175	•	1266	•	149	7,975	172	•	477	80	•	178	76	•	•	167	256
June	100	118	155	143	•	•	175	165	1334	250	150	7,975	172	•	477	80	179	•	76	•	188	167	256
July	104	118	157	143	185	•	175	•	1334	•	150	7,975	172	127	477	80	•	•	76	•	•	167	256
Aug.	105	118	161	142	•	•	175	•	1334	•	150	7,975	172	•	477	80	•	182	76	•	•	167	256
Sept.	105	118	162	142	•	•	175	•	1334	250	150	7,975	172	•	477	70	179	•	76	•	188	167	256
Oct.	105	118	165	142	•	•	175	•	1334	•	150	7,975	172	127	638	78	•	•	76	•	•	167	256
Nov.	105	118	166	142	•	•	175	•	1334	•	150	8,700	172	•	638	78	•	182	76	•	•	167	256
Dec.	105	118	166	—	•	•	—	—	1334	250	151	—	172	•	638	78	179	•	76	•	•	167	256
1927 Jan.	105	118	180	—	185	•	—	•	1334	•	151	—	—	—	638	—	•	•	92[6]	•	188	167	256
																					•	167	—

[1] 1922 = 100. [2] 1921 = 100. [3] 1922 = 100. [4] 1913 = 1. [5] 1913 = 100. [6] New series. The sign • signifies "no figures published". The sign — signifies "figures not yet received".

Wage Rates and Retail Prices in Various Cities

Tables I and II below, giving wage and price statistics in various cities at 1 December 1926 or the nearest date for which figures are available, are in continuation of corresponding tables published in the February number of the *Review*[1] which gave data generally for 1 November 1926. Information is given for 19 cities, the figures generally having been supplied to the International Labour Office by the Department of the Central Government or of the Municipality which compiles these data. In certain cases figures have been taken from official publications.

Table I gives money wages, generally based on rates fixed by collective agreements, of typical categories of workers in the building, engineering, furniture-making, and printing and bookbinding industries. The figures are calculated on the basis of 48 hours' work, generally at ordinary time rates. So far as information is available, the amounts of cost-of-living bonuses and family allowances paid in certain cities are included. It should be pointed out that the data are not in all cases strictly comparable, as for some cities for which minimum rates are given the rates actually paid are somewhat higher. In the other cases the figures given are either the actual rates, or minimum rates which differ to a very small extent from the actual rates.

Table II gives the average retail prices of various articles of food which are of importance in the consumption of wage earners and their families.

[1] *International Labour Review*, Vol. XV, No. 2, Feb. 1927, pp. 307-308.

TABLE I. MONEY WAGES CALCULATED ON THE BASIS OF 48 HOURS' WORK AT ORDINARY TIME RATES AT 1 DECEMBER 1926

Industry and occupation	Amsterdam	Berlin	Brussels	Lisbon	Lodz	London	Madrid	Oslo[2]	Ottawa	Paris	Philadelphia[2]	Prague[2]	Riga	Rome	Stockholm[4]	Sydney[5]	Tallinn[2]	Vienna	Warsaw
Building Industry:	Gulden	R Mks.	Francs	Escudos	Zloty	s. d.	Pesetas	Kroner	Dollars	Francs	Dollars	Korumy	Lats	Lire	Kronor	s. d.	E. Mks.	Schillings	Zloty
Bricklayers or masons	38.40	60.48	174.00	108.00	48.00	85 0	66.00	83.01	48.00	240.00	72.00	250.00	40.62	192.00	76.80	118 0	2,268	68.16	51.84
Carpenters	38.40	60.96	182.40	114.00	48.00	85 0	78.00	79.20	36.00	240.00	54.00	252.50	31.38	192.00	76.80	132 0	2,118	72.96	50.40
Joiners	38.40	—	189.60	114.00	48.00	85 0	90.00	79.20	36.00	228.00	54.00	—	32.70	172.80	76.80	—	2,178	55.68	—
Plumbers	38.40	64.80	166.80	108.00	48.00	85 0	75.00	67.20	40.80	240.00	55.20	—	—	168.00	66.24	122 0	—	55.10	—
Painters (general)	36.00	60.00	157.20	108.00	48.00	81 0	78.00	83.04	31.20	240.00	48.00	260.00	37.98	252.00	81.60	118 0	—	76.80	51.36
Labourers (general)	31.20	46.08	126.00	102.00	24.00	65 0	42.00	75.36	19.20	180.00	40.80	175.00	22.62	144.00	69.60	108 0	1,530	52.80	31 68
Engineering Trades:																			
Fitters	32.16	—	172.80	120.00	36.96	62 2	72.00	60.00	28.80	225.60	48.00	245.00	31.14	172.80	—	112 6	—	—	40.80
Ironmoulders (hand)	32.16	—	178.56	120.00	36.96	62 2	72.00	60.00	28.32	232.80	46.50	290.00	34.20	172.80	—	111 6	2,070	—	40.80
Patternmakers	32.16	—	234.24	120.00	36.96	66 10	90.00	60.00	33.60	288.00	48.00	317.50	31.98	—	—	121 6	—	—	40.80
Turners	32.16	—	183.36	120.00	36.96	62 2	78.00	60.00	28.80	237.60	38.40	245.00	27.78	165 60	—	112 6	2,130	53.30	40.80
Labourers	25.68	31.20	131.04	—	23.04	43 3	42.00	52.80	19.20	156 00	31.20	155.00	19.50	120.00	—	93 0	1,170	35.52	26.40
Furniture Trades:																			
Cabinet-makers	32.64	47.38	194.40	120.00	—	84 0	72.00	62.40	27.60	288.00	—	290.00	35.34	240.00	57.60	102 0	1,710	52.80	—
Labourers	—	39.56	—	—	—	—	42.00	—	16.80	216.00	—	150.00	19.56	129.60	51.84	—	1,644	35.04	—
Printing and Bookbinding Trades:																			
Hand compositors (book and job)	35.04	48.00	254.00	120.00	73.75	89 0	73.50	74.96	36.73	288.00	43.20	—	47 52	203.50	60.55	120 0	2,640	60.50	114.26
Machine ,, ,,	39.36	57.60	266.00	120.00	105.00	96 0	81.00	89.61	36.73	306.00	45.17	285.00	67.98	257.00	66.40	133 0	3,498	72.60	159.96
Machine minders	35.04	48.00	254.00	—	72.50	89 0	88.50	74.95	36.73	—	42.00	—	—	203.50	60.55	120 0	2,676	60.50	114.26
Bookbinders	35.04	44.16	250.00	120 00	72.50	80 0	70.50	—	35.48	—	41.00	212.50	55.56	190.00	55.20	95 0	2,124	49.25	100 59
Labourers	28.08	42.00	—	—	25.00	71 0[1]	48.00	—	—	—	—	187.50	29.64	165.00	49.60	—	1,800	42.00	57.13

[1] Warehouse porters. [2] Figures for 1 October 1926. [3] Figures for 1 October 1925. [4] For certain occupations the figures are minimum rates fixed by collective agreements and skilled workers are frequently paid at higher rates. [5] Figures for 31 December 1925. [6] Figures for 1 November 1926.

TABLE II. AVERAGE RETAIL PRICES[1] OF CERTAIN ARTICLES OF FOOD AT 1 DECEMBER 1926

Commodity	Amsterdam	Berlin	Brussels	Lisbon	Lodz	London	Madrid	Oslo	Ottawa	Paris	Philadelphia[2]	Prague	Riga	Rome	Stockholm	Sydney[3]	Tallinn	Vienna	Warsaw
	Gulden	R.Mks.	Francs	Escudos	Zloty	Pence	Pesetas	Kroner	Cents	Francs	Cents	Koruny	Lats	Lire	Kronor	Pence	R. Mks.	Schillings	Zloty
Bread																			
White	0.24	0.73	2.75	2.40	—	5.2	0.65	0.86	17.0	2.60	20.9	3.20	0.73	2.75	0.78	7.1	48.8	1.65	0.66
Black or rye	—	0.41	2.70	1.80	0.62	—	—	0.45	—	—	—	2.85	0.31	—	0.64	—	19.8	0 60	—
Flour (wheaten)	0.28	0.54	3.76	3.40	0.86	6.1	0.80	0.48	13.7	3.85	12.1	4.41	0.73	3.00	0.47	5.7	40.3	0.78	0.96
Butter																			
Fresh	2.25	3.90	27.75	25.00	7.41	46.7	5.00	4.41	93.9	27.15	128.1	27.74	3.97	24.00	—	52.2	256.4	6.80	7.49
Salt	—	—	27.00	24.00	—	45.9	3.20	—	—	—	—	—	3.56	11.50	3.20	—	232.0	—	—
Margarine	1.20	1.86	11.52	7.00	—	17.6	—	1.66	—	11.30	67.9	15.57	2.30	15.00	1.60	—	—	2.80	—
Beef (home produce)																			
Ribs	1.40	2.20	18.55	8.00	2.32	41.9	5.60	2.81	48.3	21.15	80.7	15.89	1,75	11.50	2.19	14.6	97.7	3.20	2.53
Thin flank	1.10		9.82			18.1	4.30	2.28	23.4	9.85	57.6	13.52	1.13	10.50	1.70	13.2	61.1		
Beef (chilled or frozen)																			
Ribs	1.10	1.40	14.33	—	—	26.0	3.40	—	—	14.50	—	—	—	11.00	—	—	—	2.60	—
Thin flank	0.80		7.00	—	—	11.0	1.50	—	—	6.80	—	—	—	4.00	—	—	—		—
Mutton (home produce)																			
Leg	2.20	2.50	14.35	7.00	2.26	41.0	4.00	2.46	62.2	20 80	88.2	12.30	1.36	—	2.40	15.8	87.9	2.80	2.47
Breast	1.20	2.10	8.85			19.6	3.50	2.16	—	8.75	—		1.07	—		12.5	80.6		
Mutton (frozen)																			
Leg	—	—	11.00	—	—	27.1	—	1.97	—	15.50	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Breast	—	—	3.00	—	—	11.0	—		—	8.00	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Bacon	1.20	3.10	17.97	8.00	3.90	40.1	3.50	—	91.7	14.05	108.5	—	2.02	9.00	2.57	42.5	146.5	2.80	4.00
Potatoes	0.09	0.11	0.87	0.95	0.13	2.8	0.35	0.13	6.5	1.55	9.7	1.39	0.11	0.90	0.14	5.6	4.6	0.26	0.18
Sugar (white granulated)	0.54	0.68	4.03	3.00	1.30	7.9	1.60	0.84	16.8	5.05	14.8	5.73	0.65	7.30	0.63	10.2	44.0	1.04	1.40
Coffee	1.65	6.80	25.28	12.00	11.00	—	9.00	3.90	136.0	28.40	100.5	45.05	9.00	35.00	3.80	57.8	390.7	10.40	11.20
Coffee substitute	—	0.50	—	—	2.50	—	3.00	—	—	7.7	—	4.05	0.70	0.85	1.60	—	97.7	1.50	2.74
Tea	3.10	9.60	33.33	30.00	25.00	48.5	18.00	—	159.2	47.00	159.0	—	12.00	58.00	—	59.8	586.1	16.00	28.80
Cheese	1.40	1.50	—	20 00	1.52	27.6	5.50	0.84	69.0	17.65	87.3	6.11	1.25	17.00	1.77	36.3	195.4	5.40	1.97
Milk (unskimmed)	0.17	0.33	1.78	2,40	0.45	6.2	0.80	0.35	9.7	1.60	13.2	2.14	0.26	1.80	0.24	9.2	15.9	0.52	0.52
Eggs (not newlaid or preserved)	0.12	0.15	1.51	0.73	0.27	3.0	0.25	0.18	6.1	1.28	5.2	1.11	0.14	0.95	0.19	1.7	9.4	0.22	0.25
Rice	0.25	0.68	5.71	2.80	1.24	6.4	1.00	0.95	24.9	6.55	27.1	4.45	0.84	3.20	0.52	7.4	48.8	1.00	1.31

[1] Prices are per kilogramme, except for milk (per litre) and eggs (per unit). [2] Figures for 15 October 1926. [3] Figures for 15 September 1926.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

Recent Labour Legislation

The list of laws and orders and international conventions given below continues the list published in previous numbers of the *Review*. The titles are, as a rule, given in the original language, with abbreviated translations of all those other than English, French, and German. A brief statement of the subject is added where the title itself does not indicate it. Abbreviated titles of sources have been used[1]. Those entries in the list marked with an asterisk (*) will be reproduced in full in English, French, and German in the *Legislative Series* of the International Labour Office.

LEGISLATION OF 1925

CONTROLLED TERRITORIES OF LEAGUE OF NATIONS

Saar Territory

Verordnung über den Uebertritt aus versicherungsfreier in versicherungspflichtige Beschäftigung und umgekehrt. Vom 31. März 1925. (Amtsblatt, 1925, No. 11, p. 84.)

Erlass betr. die Einkommensgrenzen in der Wochenfürsorge. Vom 3. Juni 1925. (Amtsblatt, 1925, No. 14, p. 111.)

Verordnung betr. Abänderung des § 139/ der Gewerbeordnung. [Fakultativer Ladenschluss.] Vom 17. August 1925. (Amtsblatt, 1925, No. 24, p. 191.)

Verordnung betreffend die Errichtung des Saar-Knappschaftsvereins. Vom 16. September 1925. (Amtsblatt, 1925, No. 29, p. 386.)

INTERNATIONAL

Latvia-Italy

Tirdzniecibas konvencija starp Latvijas Republiku un Italijas Karalvalsti. 1925. g. 25. julijâ. (Valdîbas Vêstnesis, 1926, No. 285, p. 1.)

[Commercial Agreement between the Republic of Latvia and the Kingdom of Italy. (Section 9 : Navigation.) Dated 25 July 1925.]

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[1] *List of abbreviations:* A. N. = Amtliche Nachrichten des Oesterreichischen Bundesministeriums für soziale Verwaltung; B. G. Bl. = Bundesgesetzblatt; B. I. R. S. = Boletin del Instituto de Reformas Sociales; B. M. T. = Bulletin du Ministère du Travail; B. O. M. T. = Boletin Oficial del Ministerio de Trabajo, Comercio e Industria; C. S. R. = Commonwealth Statutory Rules; D. R. A. = Deutscher Reichsanzeiger; Drj. Vest. = Drjaven Vestnik; E. K. N. = Ergatiké kai Koinoniké Nomothesia (pararténa B') (published by the Ministry of National Economy); Eph. Kyb. = Ephémeris tès Kybernéséos (Teuchos proton); G. U. = Gazzetta Ufficiale; I. N. K. T. = Izvestia Narodnogo Komissariata Trooda; J. O. = Journal Officiel; Lik. = Likumu un Minustru Kabineta Noteikumu Krajums; R. Arb. Bl. = Reichsarbeitsblatt; R. d. T. = Revue du Travail; R. G. Bl. = Reichsgesetzblatt; S. R. & O. = Statutory Rules and Orders; Sb. z. a n. = Sbirka zâkonu a narizeni (Collection of Laws and Orders of the Czechoslavak Republic); L. S. = Legislative Series of the International Labour Office.

BARBADOS

* An Act to provide for a weekly half-holiday for shop assistants. No. 35. Dated 8 October 1925.

CYPRUS

* A Law enacted by His Excellency the High Commissioner and Commander-in-Chief of the Island of Cyprus, with the advice and consent of the Legislative Council thereof, to provide for the regulation and inspection of mines and for the payment of compensation to workmen for injuries suffered in the course of their employment in mines. No. 12 of 1925. Dated 29 April 1925. (The Statute Laws of Cyprus, 1925.)

DANZIG (FREE CITY OF)

Verordnung zur Ergänzung der Verordnung über Einziehung der Beiträge zur Krankenversicherung vom 27. Januar 1925 (Gesetzblatt S. 17). Vom 5. Juni 1925. (Gesetzblatt für die freie Stadt Danzig, 1925, No. 25, p. 151.)

MALAY STATES (UNFEDERATED)

Johore

An Enactment to repeal " The Netherlands Indian Labourers' Protection Enactment, 1909 ". No. 9 of 1925. Dated 27 October 1925. (Appendix to the Johore Government Gazette, 27 January 1926.)

Perlis

The Tamil Immigration Fund Enactment 1329 (1911). Amendment Enactment 1343 (1924-1925). No. 2 of 1343.

MAURITIUS

An Ordinance to regulate Emigration. No. 27 of 1925. Assented to 17 October 1925.

NORWAY

Resolution om forskrifter og regler for kjeler og rörledninger som er utsatt for damptrykk. 11 september 1925. (Norsk Lovtidende, 1925, 2den avdeling, p. 453.)

[Resolution respecting regulations and rules for boilers and conduits which are exposed to steam pressure. Dated 11 September 1925.]

* Resolution om forandring i forskriftene for arbeidet i shoddy- og fillerivningsanlegg. 26 november 1925. (Norsk Lovtidende, 1925, 2den avdeling, p. 534.)

[Resolution to amend the regulations respecting work in shoddy and rag-grinding establishments. Dated 26 November 1925.]

Resolution om fastsettelse av inntektsgrense for pliktig og frivillig forsikring efter de nye sykeforsikringsbestemmelser av 17 juli 1925. 3 desember 1925. (Norsk Lovtidende, 1925, 2den avdeling, p. 540.)

[Resolution to fix the income limit for compulsory and voluntary insurance in conformity with the new sickness insurance provisions of 17 July 1925. Dated 3 December 1925.]

Resolution om utsettelse til 1 januar 1927 med ikrafttredelsen av lov om maskinister pa motorfartöier av handelsmarinen av 9 februar 1923. 11 desember 1925. (Norsk Lovtidende, 1925, 2den adveling, p. 549.)

[Resolution to postpone till 1 January 1927 the coming into operation of the Act of 9 February 1923 respecting enginemen on motor boats in the mercantile marine. Dated 11 December 1925.]

PARAGUAY

* Decreto No. 22037, por el cual se reglamenta la Ley No. 242. 19 de Octubre de 1925.

[Decree No. 22037 to regulate Act No. 242 (respecting Sunday rest). Dated 19 October 1925.]

LEGISLATION OF 1926

CONTROLLED TERRITORIES OF LEAGUE OF NATIONS

Saar Territory

Bekanntmachung betr. Protokoll über die Regelung des Arbeiterverkehrs an der deutsch-saarländischen Grenze. Vom 14. September 1926. (Amtsblatt, 1926, No. 43, p. 305.)

Verordnung betr. Festsetzung von Geldstrafen auf Grund des § 150 der Deutschen Gewerbeordnung. Vom 28. September 1926. (Amtsblatt, 1926, No. 45, p. 323.)

Bekanntmachung betr. Jahresarbeitsverdienst land- und forstwirtschaftlicher Arbeiter. Vom 8. November 1926. (Amtsblatt, 1926, No. 43, p. 314.)

Bekanntmachung betr. Neufestsetzung der Ortslöhne. Vom 8. November 1926. (Amtsblatt, 1926, No. 43, p. 314.)

INTERNATIONAL

Latvia-Germany

Ligums starp Latvijas Republiku un Vâcijas valsti saimniecisko attiecibu nokârtosanai starp Latviju un Vâciju. 1926. g. 28. junijâ. (Lik., 1926, 18. burtnica, No. 153, pp. 418-422.)

[Treaty between the Latvian Republic and Germany to regulate the economic relations between Latvia and Germany. Dated 28 June 1926.]

ARGENTINA

Ley No. 11358 suspendiendo la ejecución y efectos de la Ley No. 11289. Septiembre 20 de 1926. (Boletín Oficial, 1926, No. 9743, p. 1234.)

[Act No. 11358 to suspend the operation of Act No. 11289 (of 28 November 1923 respecting pension funds). Dated 20 September 1926.]

Decreto: Cajas de Previsión Social — Reglamentación de la Ley No. 11358. Octubre 19 de 1926. (Boletín Oficial, 1926, No. 9766, p. 1090.)

[Decree issuing administrative regulations under Act No. 11358 (respecting pension funds). Dated 19 October 1926.]

AUSTRALIA

Queensland

* An Act to amend "The Workers' Compensation Acts, 1916 to 1925" in certain particulars. No. 17 of 1926. Assented to 11 November 1926. (Queensland Government Gazette, 1926, No. 144, p. 2215.)

Amended Rules concerning casual workers under "The Unemployed Workers' Insurance Act of 1922": payment of sustenance allowance to workers in the coal mining industry. Dated 14 October 1926. (Queensland Government Gazette, 1926, No. 104, p. 1607.)

Western Australia

Regulations under "The Pearling Act, 1912-1924". Dated 19 October 1926. (Government Gazette of Western Australia, 1926, No. 49, p. 2127.)

BELGIUM

Arrêté: Police des établissements dangereux, insalubres et incommodes. — Addition à la liste de l'arrêté royal du 15 mai 1923. Du 11 octobre 1926. (Moniteur Belge, 1926, No. 345, p. 6772.)

Arrêté: Loi du 3 août 1926 modifiant et complétant la loi du 30 décembre 1924 relative à l'assurance en vue de la vieillesse et du décès prématuré des ouvriers mineurs. Approbation du règlement prévu à l'article 22*bis*. Du 15 novembre 1926. (Moniteur Belge, 1926, No. 336, p. 6630.)

Arrêté: Etablissements classés comme dangereux, insalubres ou incommodes. — Modification de rubrique. — Taillerie de diamants comprenant plus d'un appareil mécanique pour le travail des diamants. Du 14 décembre 1926. (Moniteur Belge, 1926, No. 351, p. 6856.)

BERMUDA

The Public Officers' and Employees' Injuries Relief Act, 1926. No. 3. Dated 15 January 1926.

BRAZIL

* Decreto n. 17496 que approva o regulamento para a concessao de férias aos empregados e operarios de estabelecimentos commerciaes, industriaes e bancarios e outros. 30 de outubro de 1926. (Diario Oficial, 1926, No. 251, p. 19957.)

[Decree No. 17496 to approve the regulations respecting the holidays of wage-earning and salaried employees in commercial, industrial, banking, and other establishments. Dated 30 October 1926.]

Decreto n. 17524, que approva o regulamento da Estrada do Ferro Oéste de Minas. 9 de novembro de 1926. (Diario Oficial, 1926, No. 264, p. 21078.)

[Decree No. 17524 to approve the regulations for the Oeste de Minas Railway Company. Dated 9 November 1926.]

* Decreto n. 5083 que institue o Codigo de Menores. 1 de dezembro de 1926. (Diario Oficial, 1926, No. 276, p. 22123.)

[Decree No. 5083 instituting a Code for young persons. Dated 1 December 1926.]

CANADA

Nova Scotia

* An Act respecting the investigation of industrial disputes within the Province. Chapter 5. Passed 15 March 1926.

FINLAND

Förordning om bringande i verkställighet av handels- och sjöfartsfördraget mellan Finland och Japan. Den 22 oktober 1926. (Finlands Författningssamling, 1926, No. 269, p. 700.)

[Order respecting the bringing into operation of the Treaty of Commerce and Navigation between Finland and Japan. Dated 22 October 1926.]

* Förordning angaende utlännings inkommande till Finland och vistelse i landet. Den 23 november 1926. (Finlands Författningssamling, 1926, No. 292, p. 782.)

[Order respecting the entry into Finland and stay therein of aliens. Dated 23 November 1926.]

FRANCE

Laws.

* Loi du 8 juillet 1926 modifiant le paragraphe 2 de l'article 2 de la loi du 9 avril 1898 modifié par les lois du 22 mars 1902 et du 5 août 1920 sur les accidents du travail. (B. M. T., 1926, Nos. 7-8-9, p. 65*.)

Loi du 18 août 1926 relative aux adjudications et marchés passés avec les sociétés d'ouvriers français par les communes et les établissements de bienfaisance et d'assistance. (B. M. T., 1926, Nos. 7-8-9, p. 68*.)

Loi du 19 août 1926 portant modification de la loi du 5 décembre 1922 sur les habitations à bon marché et la petite propriété. (B. M. T., 1926, Nos. 7-8-9, p. 69*.)

* Loi modifiant l'article 72 du livre II du Code du Travail et de la Prévoyance sociale (travaux interdits aux enfants de moins de dix-huit ans et aux femmes). Du 7 décembre 1926. (J. O., 1926, No. 285, p. 12818.)

* Loi portant Code du Travail maritime. Du 13 décembre 1926. (J. O., 1926, No. 291, p. 13018.)

Orders.

Arrêté du 9 juillet 1926 fixant le taux des subventions à allouer aux offices publics de placement pour les opérations du 2me semestre 1925. (B. M. T., 1926, Nos. 7-8-9, p. 86*.)

Décret du 10 septembre 1926 maintenant, pour l'année 1927, les taxes fixées par l'article 1er de la loi du 30 juin 1924 et destinées à faire face au payement des allocations temporaires instituées par la loi du 15 juillet 1922 en faveur de certaines catégories de bénéficiaires de rentes au titre de la loi du 9 avril 1898 sur les accidents du travail. (B. M. T., 1926, Nos. 7-8-9, p. 85*.)

Décret portant règlement d'administration publique pour l'établissement d'un régime uniforme de répartition des heures de travail dans les ateliers de maréchalerie de la ville de Bordeaux et de plusieurs communes avoisinantes. Du 10 novembre 1926. (J. O., 1926, No. 266, p. 12167.)

Décret relatif à la carte d'identité des étrangers. Du 30 novembre 1926. (J. O., 1926, No. 280, p. 12659 ; erratum : 1926, No. 281, p. 12690.)

Décret portant modification au décret du 15 novembre 1924 réglementant les sanctions de police administrative indigène. Du 30 novembre 1926. (J. O., 1926, No. 282, p. 12733.)

Décret étendant les dispositions du Code des Assurances sociales à des maladies d'origine professionnelle (Alsace et Lorraine). Du 30 novembre 1926. (J. O., 1926, No. 296, p. 13298.)

Promulgation de la Convention et du Protocole entre la France et la Belgique relatifs à l'application du repos hebdomadaire dans les établissements industriels. Du 2 décembre 1926. (J. O., 1926, No. 283, p. 12757.)

Décret portant promulgation de la Convention internationale pour la suppression de la traite des femmes et des enfants, signée à Genève le 30 septembre 1921. Du 3 décembre 1926. (J. O., 1926, No. 283, p. 12755.)

* Décret portant règlement d'administration publique pour l'application de la loi du 23 avril 1919 sur la journée de huit heures dans les entreprises de manutention dans les ports non accessibles aux navires de haute mer. Du 9 décembre 1926. (J. O., 1926, No. 292, p. 13069.)

GERMANY

Gesetz über eine Krisenfürsorge für Erwerbslose. Vom 19. November 1926. (R. Arb. Bl., 1926, No. 44, p. 381.)

Verordnung über die Pauschbeträge für die Spruchsachen bei den Oberversicherungsämtern. Vom 10. November 1926. (R. Arb. Bl., 1926, No. 44, p. 385.)

Zweite Verordnung über Grundsätze für die Erstattung der Kosten der Spruchbehörden der Angestelltenversicherung. Vom 10. November 1926. (R. G. Bl., 1926, No. 44, p. 385.)

Verordnung über die Pauschbeträge für die Spruchsachen bei den Oberversicherungsämtern. Vom 10. November 1926. (R. G. Bl., 1926, I, No. 61, p. 487.)

Zweite Verordnung über Grundsätze für die Erstattung der Kosten der Spruchbehörden der Angestelltenversicherung. Vom 10. November 1926. (R. G. Bl., 1926, I, No. 61, p. 488.)

Verordnung über Abänderung der Rechnungsführung bei Krankenkassen. Vom 15. November 1926. (R. Arb. Bl., 1926, No. 43, p. 375.)

Prussia

Verordnung über die Lockerung der Wohnungszwangswirtschaft. Vom 11. November 1926. (R. Arb. Bl., 1926, No. 45, p. 392.)

GREAT BRITAIN

* An Act to amend subsection (2) of section eleven of the Workmen's Compensation Act, 1925. (16 & 17 Geo. V, ch. 42.) Dated 15 December 1926.

* An Act to make better provision for the protection against lead poisoning of persons employed in painting buildings. (16 & 17 Geo. V, ch. 37.) Dated 15 December 1926.

The National Health Insurance (Arrears) Amendment Regulations, 1926, dated 1 November 1926, made by the National Health Insurance Joint Committee under the National Health Insurance Act, 1924 (14 & 15 Geo. V, ch. 38). (S. R. & O., 1926, No. 1393.)

The National Health Insurance (Joint Committee) Regulations, 1926, dated 5 November 1926, made by the National Health Insurance Joint Committee under the National Health Insurance Acts, 1924 and 1926. (S. R. & O., 1926, No. 1397.)

Order in Council exempting Belgian Ships complying with Belgian Regulations from detention for non-compliance with the provisions of the Merchant Shipping Acts as to overloading. Dated 5 November 1926. (S. R. & O., 1926, No. 1417.)

The Contributory Pensions (Workmen's Compensation Notification) Regulations, 1926, dated 11 November 1926, made by the Minister of Health under section 25 of the Widows', Orphans', and Old-Age Contributory Pensions Act, 1925 (15 & 16 Geo. V., ch. 70). (S. R. & O., 1926, No. 1424.)

* The Woollen and Worsted Textiles (Lifting of Heavy Weights) Regulations, 1926, dated 18 November 1926, made by the Secretary of State under section 79 of the Factory and Workshop Act, 1901 (1 Edw. VII, ch. 22). (S. R. & O., 1926, No. 1463.)

IRISH FREE STATE

Acht Rialuithe na Stàt-Sheirbhise (Leasú), 1926 (Uimh. 41 de '26). 22 adh là de Mheàn Fhomhair, 1926.

Civil Service Regulation (Amendment) Act, 1926 (No. 41 of 1926). Dated 22 September 1926.

ITALY

Regio decreto 5 dicembre 1926, n. 2088 : Riconoscimento giuridico dell' Associazione nazionale fascista dei dirigenti aziende industriali. (Numero di pubblicazione : 2411.) (G. U., 1926, No. 294, p. 5518.)

[Royal Decree No. 2088 : Legal recognition of the National Fascist Organisation of persons at the head of industrial undertakings. Dated 5 December 1926.]

LATVIA

Likums par ligumu starp Latvijas republiku un Vâcijas valsti saimniecisko attiecibu nokârtosanai starp Latviju un Vâciju. 1926. g. 28. oktobri. (Lik., 1926, 18. burtnica, No. 153, p. 417.)

[Act respecting the Treaty concluded between the Latvian Republic and Germany to regulate the economic relations between the two countries. Dated 28 October 1926.]

Likums par jaunu terminu noteiksanu agrarâs reformas likuma I dalas 3. panta *e* punkta un 14. pantâ paredzêto lûgumu iesniegsanai. 1926. g. 2. decembri. (Valdîbas Vêstnesis, 1926, No. 272, p. 1.)

[Act to fix a new time limit for the sending in of the applications mentioned in sections 3(*e*) and 14 of Part I of the Agrarian Reform Act. Dated 2 December 1926.]

Likums par tirdzniecibas konvenciju starp Latviju un Italiju. 1926. g. 17. decembri. (Valdîbas Vêstnesis, 1926, No. 285, p. 1.)

[Act relating to the Commercial Agreement between the Republic of Latvia and the Kingdom of Italy. Dated 17 December 1926.]

* Pârgrozîjumi likumâ par biedribâmî, savienibâm un politiskâm orgânizacijâm. 1926. g. 30 septembri. (Valdîbas Vêstnesis, 1926, No. 219.)

[Amendments of the Act respecting associations, federations and political organisations. Dated 30 September 1926.]

Pârgrozîjums agrarâs reformas likuma I d. 3. p. *d* punkta papildinâjumos un pârgrozîjumos. 1926. g. 1. novembri. (Lik., 1926, 18. burtnica, No. 154, p. 426.)

[Amendment of the Supplements and Amendments of Part I, section 3 (*d*), of the Agrarian Reform Act. Dated 1 November 1926.]

Pupildinâjums likumâ par algotiem darbiniekiem un vinu gimenes locekjiem agrâk pieskirtâm penzijâm un atlîdzibu sakroplojuma un profesionalu slimîbu gadîjumos. 1926. g. 22 decembri. (Valdîbas Vêstnesis, 1926, No. 289, p. 1.)

[Supplement to the Act respecting pensions and compensation accorded at an earlier date to employees and members of their families in case of bodily injury or occupational diseases. Dated 22 December 1926.]

LITHUANIA

* Vyriausiosios Socialinio Draudimo Valdyhos istatymas. 1926 m. Kovo men. 23 d. (Vyriausybes Zinios, 1926, No. 225, p. 1469.)

[Act respecting the Superior Social Insurance Council. Dated 23 March 1926.]

Memel Territory

* Istatymas apie spaudos sajungu ir susirinkimu laiswes atitaisyma. 1926 m. spaliu men. 19 d.

Gesetz über die Wiederherstellung der Presse-, Vereins- und Versammlungsfreiheit. Vom 19. Oktober 1926.

(Amtsblatt des Memelgebietes, 1926, No. 110, p. 688.)

[Act to restore freedom of the press, of association, and of assembly. Dated 19 October 1926.]

LUXEMBURG

* Loi du 6 décembre 1926 sur le congé ouvrier.

Gesetz vom 6. Dezember 1926 über den Arbeiterurlaub.

(Mémorial, 1926, No. 58.)

Arrêté du 21 décembre 1926, portant fixation de la rémunération annuelle moyenne servant de base au calcul des rentes-accidents agricoles et forestières.

Beschluss vom 21. Dezember 1926, betreffend Festsetzung des jährlichen Durschschnittsverdienstes zur Berechnung der land- und forstwirtschaftlichen Unfallrenten.

(Mémorial, 1926, No. 61, p. 989.)

MALAY STATES (FEDERATED)

An Enactment to amend "The Netherlands Indian Labourers' Protection Enactments, 1909". No. 1 of 1926. Dated 8 April 1926. (Federated Malay States Government Gazette, 1926, No. 9, Vol. XVIII, Notification No. 2141.)

Rules under the "The Labour Code, 1923": "The Labour Code (Sanitary Arrangements) Rules, 1926". Promulgated 25 June 1926. (Federated Malay States Government Gazette, No. 13, Vol. XVIII, Notification No. 3288.)

MALAY STATES (UNFEDERATED)

Johore

* An Enactment to regulate and control the employment of female domestic servants. No. 6 of 1926. Dated 8 May 1926. Notification No. 259. (Johore Government Gazette Extraordinary, 6 June 1926.)

MOZAMBIQUE

Portaria No. 309, de 1 de Maio de 1926, suprimindo a taxa de regresso que se cobra aos indigenas regressados do Transvaal e instituindo una taxa de isençao de prestaçao de trabalho, da qual 50 por cento reverterao para um fundo de assistância aos emigrantes indigenas. (Boletim da Agencia Geral das Colónias, 1926, No. 13, p. 181.)

[Order No. 309 to abolish the return tax levied on natives returning from the Transvaal and to introduce a tax for exemption from compulsory labour, 50 per cent. of which shall be paid into a fund for the assistance of native emigrants. Dated 1 May 1926.]

NETHERLANDS

* Besluit van den 16den October 1926 houdende bekendmaking van den tekst van het Werktijdensbesluit voor fabrieken of werkplaatsen 1923, zooals dit sedert is gewijzigd. (Staatsblad, 1926, No. 359.)

[Decree promulgating the text of the Hours of Work Decree for Factories and Workplaces, 1923, as subsequently amended. Dated 16 October 1926.]

NORWAY

* Lov om forandringer i lov om ulykkesforsikring for industriarbeidere m. v. av 13 august 1915 med tilleggslover. Den 1 juli 1926. (Norsk Lovtidende, 1926, 2den avdeling, p. 264.)

[Act to amend the Act of 13 August 1915 respecting the accident insurance of industrial workers, etc., and the supplementary Acts. Dated 1 July 1926.]

Lov om endringer i lov om boligforholdene av 12 juli 1918 med tilleggslov av 23 juli 1919. Den 9. juli 1926. (Norsk Lovtidende, 1926, 2den avdeling, p. 278.)
[Act to amend the Act of 12 July 1918 respecting housing conditions and the supplementary Act of 23 July 1919. Dated 9 July 1926.]

NYASALAND PROTECTORATE

An Ordinance to amend the Employment of Natives Ordinance, 1909. No. 13 of 1926. Dated 28 April 1926.

PORTUGUESE GUINEA

Portaria No. 12, de 26 de Janeiro de 1926, aprovando as tabelas de salários dos serviçais indigenas. (Boletim Oficial, 1926, No. 5.)
[Order No. 12 to approve the wage scales for native workers. Dated 26 January 1926.]

ST. HELENA

Ascension Island

An Ordinance to make further provision for regulating the engagement of workmen to be employed in the Dependency of Ascension Island. No. 5 of 1926. Dated 17 May 1926.

SPAIN

Real orden aprobando los Estatutos de las Comisiones mixtas del Trabajo en el Comercio de Barcelona. 7 de diciembre de 1926. (Gaceta de Madrid, 1926, No. 357, p. 1651.)
[Royal Order to approve the rules of the joint labour committees in commercial undertakings in Barcelona. Dated 7 December 1926.]

Real Orden dictando las reglas, que se indican, para la aplicación del Estatuto de las Clases pasivas del Estado. 11 de diciembre de 1926. (Gaceta de Madrid, 1926, No. 346, p. 1378.)
[Royal Order issuing regulations for the administration of the rules for persons in receipt of state pensions. Dated 11 December 1926.]

Real orden concediendo excepción del descanso dominical a los establecimientos dedicados a la venta de jugueteria los domingos que coincidan con la víspera de la fiesta de Reyes. 16 de diciembre de 1926. (Gaceta de Madrid, 1926, No. 356, p. 1631.)
[Royal Order to grant an exemption from the Sunday rest regulations to establishments for the sale of toys when the eve of the Epiphany falls on a Sunday. Dated 16 December 1926.]

* Real decreto aprobando el Reglamento, que se inserta, para la aplicación del Decreto-ley de 8 de junio de 1925, relativo al descanso dominical. 17 de diciembre de 1926. (Gaceta de Madrid, 1926, No. 356, p. 1618.)
[Royal Decree to approve the regulations for the administration of the Legislative Decree of 8 June 1925 respecting Sunday rest. Dated 17 December 1926.]

STRAITS SETTLEMENTS

Ordinance No. 197 to consolidate the law relating to Labour. (Ordinance XIX of 1923; 6 October 1920.) (Edition of 1926.)

SWITZERLAND

Appenzell, Outer Rh des

* Gesetz betreffend die Beitragsleitung an die Arbeitslosenversicherung im Kanton Appenzell A.-Rh. Vom 25. April 1926.

Regulativ zum Gesetz betreffend die Beitragsleistung an die Arbeitslosenversicherung im Kanton Appenzell A.-Rh. Vom 6. September 1926.

Normalstatuten für die öffentliche Arbeitslosenversicherungskasse der Gemeinde (Gemeinden).... Vom Regierungsrat erlassen am 7. August 1926.

Fribourg

Beschluss vom 4. Dezember 1925 betreffend die Kontrolle über die von der Eidgenossenschaft subventionierten Arbeitslosen-Versicherungskassen.

Arrêté du 4 décembre 1925 sur le contrôle des caisses d'assurance-chômage subventionnées par la Confédération.

Schaffhausen

* Verordnung über die Subventionierung der Arbeitslosenunterstützung. Vom 30. Juni 1926.

Verordnung über den öffentlichen Arbeitsnachweis. Vom 3. Juli 1926.

Solothurn

Gesetz betreffend Abänderung des Prozess- und Strafrechtes. Vom 2. Mai 1926.

* Vollziehungs-Verordnung zum Gesetz betr. die Arbeitslosenversicherung vom 31. Oktober 1926. Vom 25. November 1926.

UNION OF SOUTH AFRICA

Government Notice No. 2069 under section nine of the Industrial Conciliation Act, No. 11 of 1924, to amend clauses 35 and 45 of the Agreement for the printing industry published under Government Notice No. 1942 of 1926. Dated 3 November 1926. (Union of South Africa Government Gazette, 1926, Vol. LXVI, No. 1589, p. 377.)

URUGUAY

Decreto : Se incluye a los obreros que trabajan en arenales entre los que no tienen horario rigido. 3 de diciembre de 1926. (Diario Oficial, 1926, No. 6169, p. 522-A).

[Decree to provide that workers employed in sand quarries shall be deemed to be workers whose hours of work are not definitely fixed. Dated 3 December 1926.]

ZANZIBAR

* A Decree to provide for the control and regulation of apprenticeships. No. 15 of 1926. Assented to 13 August 1926.

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Comité maritime international. *Commission d'Anvers (24-25 juin 1926). Assurance obligatoire des passagers.* Antwerp, Imprimerie J.E. Buschmann, 1926. 21 pp.

Report by the Antwerp Commission of the International Maritime Committee on compulsory insurance of passengers.

Der Internationale Kongress für Sozialpolitik, Prag, 3.-5. Oktober 1924. (1) *Auf dem Wege zur Wirtschaftsdemokratie.* By Dr. N. Reichesberg. (2) *Die Durchführbarkeit der Postulate des Internationalen Kongresses für Sozialpolitik.* By Theodor Tobler. (3) *Die unmittelbare praktische Auswirkung des Internationalen Kongresses für Sozialpolitik.* By Hans Pfister. Berne, Schweizerische Vereinigung zur Förderung des internationalen Arbeiterschutzes, 1925. 59 pp.

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HUNGARY

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SWITZERLAND

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Fifth Biennial Report of the Commissioner of Labour and Statistics 1925-1926. Cheyenne, 1926. 48 pp.

NON-OFFICIAL PUBLICATIONS

A Közegészségi és Társadalompolitikai orazágos értekezlet tájékoztatoja. Budapest, " Franklin ", 1926. In two volumes, 61 and 68 pp.

Programme and report of the Congress on public health and social policy held at Budapest, 24-20 October 1926.

Albrecht, Otto. *Kleingartenwesen, Kleingartenbewegung und Kleingartenpolitik.* Soziale Zeitfragen, Beiträge zu den Kämpfen der Gegenwart Heft 77. Herausgegeben von Adolf Damaschke. Berlin, G. Mann, 1924. 14 pp. 50 pf.

Allgemeiner Deutscher Gewerkschaftsbund. *Gegen den Industriefederalismus!* By Fritz Tarnow. Gegenwärtige Aufgaben deutscher Wirtschaftspolitik. Berlin, 1926. 32 pp.

The author advocates war on "industrial feudalism" and outlines a plan of economic policy which he considers Germany should adopt.

Allgemeiner Verband deutscher Erwerbs- und Wirtschaftsgenossenschaften in Oesterreich. *Mitteilungen über den neunundvierzigsten allgemeinen Vereinstag der deutschen Erwerbs- und Wirtschaftsgenossenschaften in Oesterreich abgehalten zu Krems a. d. D. am 15. und 16. Mai 1926.* Vienna, 1926. 92 pp.

Report of the Congress of the Austrian General Union of Co-operative Societies held at Krems, 15-16 May 1926.

Almanach polonais. Paris, Gebethner et Wolff, 1926. 850 pp., map.

A compendium of general information on Poland edited by a committee set up in Paris and in Warsaw under the patronage of the Polish Ministry of Foreign Affairs. The data used in its compilation are largely the same as those employed in the preparation of the *Polish Handbook*, a similar publication edited in London by Mr. Bauer-Czarnomski. The *Almanach polonais*, however, contains some special articles which are not included in the *Handbook*, and the statistical information has been brought down to a more recent date.

Among the articles contributed by authorities on the subjects dealt with may be mentioned: "Polish labour emigration", by Mr. Ladislas Sokolowski; "Agriculture", by Mr. W. Krzywicki; "Agrarian Reform in Poland", by Mr. A. Okolowicz; "The reconstruction of buildings destroyed or damaged during the war", by Mr. J. Wowkonowicz; "Labour, social insurance and social assistance", by Mme Eugénie Pragier; "The co-operative movement", by Mr. M. Rapacki; and a number of articles on Polish industries, currency and finance, education, science, literature, music, etc.

Alouf, A. *Les syndicats et la situation de la classe ouvrière dans l'U R.S.S. (1921-1925).* Preface by A. Losovsky. Paris, Petite bibliothèque de l'Internationale Rouge, 1926. 125 pp. 3 fr. 50.

Arndt, Dr. Paul. *Lohngesetz und Lohntarif* Frankfort-on-the-Main, Verlag der Universitäts-Buchhandlung Blazek und Bergmann, 1926. 201 pp.

Artman, Charles Enos. *Food Costs and City Consumers. Significant Factors in Metropolitan Distribution of Perishables.* Studies in History, Economics and Public Law, edited by the Faculty of Political Science of Columbia University, No. 280. New York, Columbia University Press, 1926. 170 pp. $2.25.

Bereoviei, J. *Contrôle sanitaire des immigrants en France.* Thesis for the Degree of Doctor in the University of Paris. Paris, Ernest Sagot et Cie., 1926. 85 pp.

Berrens, S. *Eléments de mécanique industrielle*, suivis d'une *Conférence sur l'organisation dans les ateliers* par Jules Lange. Bibliothèque d'enseignement technique et professionnel. Paris, Douin, 1926. v + 463 pp., illustr. 33 fr. 60.

Mr. Berrens' manual, designed for the use of apprentices and students of technical courses, gives the elements of industrial mechanics essential to an intelligent understanding of the duties of a mechanic or foreman. The volume includes an address by Mr. Jules Lange on organisation in the workshop.

Blum, Solomon. *Labour Economics.* American Business Series, edited by Roswell C. McCrea. New York, Henry Holt and Co., 1925. ix + 579 pp. $4.

Bouglé, C. and Raffault, J. *Eléments de sociologie.* Textes choisis et ordonnés. Publications du Centre de documentation sociale (Ecole normale supérieure). Paris, Félix Alcan, 1926. viii + 506 pp. 30 fr.

A collection of extracts from the works of sociologists and writers on legal history, the history of religions and economic subjects, selected in such a way as to show what sociology owes to these various branches of knowledge and its own contribution to them. The authors do not pretend that such a treatise can take the place of an educational course, or constitute a system; their object is to provide concrete "elements" which will facilitate the study of social science. The plan of the work is based on the curriculum adopted in the French teachers' training colleges. The book, however, is not designed only for the students of

these colleges, but also for students of philosophy in high schools and universities.

The work comprises six chief divisions dealing respectively with sociology in its general, domestic, political, moral and legal, economic, and ideological aspects. Chapter VII of the part devoted to the moral and legal aspects includes some hundred pages dealing with " International Law and the League of Nations ".

Bouniatian, M. *La loi de variation de la valeur et les mouvements généraux des prix.* Bibliothèque internationale d'économie politique, publiée sous la direction d'Alfred Bonnet. Paris, Marcel Giard, 1927. 154 pp. 12 fr.

This work is devoted to a problem of the highest importance from the theoretical as well as the practical point of view Prices influence production, distribution, consumption and the formation of capital. The economic importance of their variations cannot be underestimated. Economic crises are directly due to the general movement of prices. But what are the laws governing fluctuations of value and prices? Mr. Bouniatian tackles the problem. He analyses the notion of value, shows the deficiencies and certain errors in the theory of value of the subjective school, defines the elements of value and states the laws governing the fluctuations in value and prices. He shows his conclusions to be in accordance with the findings of experimental psychology. Having stated the laws relating to fluctuations of prices of particular commodities, Mr. Bouniatian examines the laws governing the movement of the general level of prices and cyclical fluctuations. He concludes with a refutation of the quantitative theory of price fluctuations.

Brauer, Dr. Theodor. *Deutsche Sozialpolitik und deutsche Kultur.* Schriften zur deutschen Politik, herausgegeben von Dr. G. Schreiber, 13. und 14. Heft. Freiburg-im-Breisgau, Herder und Co., 1926. 110 pp. 2 mk. 80.

British Institute of Adult Education. *The Groundwork of Adult Education. Papers read at the fourth Annual Conference of the British Institute of Adult Education, held at Balliol College, Oxford, 18-21 September 1925.* London. viii + 127 pp. 2s. 6d.

The British Year Book of International Law 1925. Sixth year of issue. London, Humphrey Milford. vi + 273 pp.

This issue of the British Year Book of International Law contains a number of important studies on the present state of public and private international law and its future development. New rules of international law arising out of the Peace Treaties through the creation of the three great international institutions — the League of Nations, the International Labour Organisation and the Permanent Court of International Justice — are dealt with in several articles of real scientific value.

The volume also includes an analysis of eight works relating to questions of international law, a bibliography, and a summary of the principal events throughout the world from 1 May 1924 to 28 February 1925.

Budapesti Kereskedelmi és Iparkamara. *Kereskedelmünk és iparunk az 1925 évben.* Budapest, 1926. 423 pp.

Budapest Chamber of Commerce and Industry. *Hungarian Commerce and Industry in the year 1925.* Budapest, 1926. 190 + xi pp.

English edition of the above. The report, which is also published in French and in German, contains a large number of statistical tables and gives a good idea of the economic situation of Hungary in 1925.

Bund der Technischen Angestellten und Beamten. *Bericht über den fünften ordentlichen Bundestag 12.-14. September 1926 in Berlin.* Berlin, 1926. 251 pp.

Report on the fifth Congress of the German Union of Technical Employees held in Berlin, 12-14 September 1926.

Burtt, Philip. *Control on the Railways. A Study in Methods.* London, Allen and Unwin, 1926. 255 pp.

The most interesting developments of modern times in connection with the working of the English railway systems are described in this volume, particular attention being devoted to the use of telephonic communication in train working and supervision.

Carnegie Corporation of New York. *Report of the President and of the Treasurer.* New York, 1926. 99 pp.

Centralne Towarzystwo Rolnicze. *Sprawodanie Centralnego Towarzystwa Rolniczego za rok 1924-25.* Warsaw, 1926. XXXVIII + 354 pp.

Report of the Polish Landowners' Federation for 1924-1925.

Chauveau, Dr. C. *Les assurances sociales.* Paris, Payot. 285 pp.

Coletti, Francesco. *Economia rurale e politica rurale in Italia.* Piacenza, Federazione Italiana dei consorzi agrari, 1926. VII + 339 pp. 30 lire.

This collection of articles by Mr. Coletti, which have already appeared in various reviews, is a welcome contribution to the study of agricultural economics and policy and agricultural labour in Italy. Special mention may be made of the articles on agricultural labour contracts, the strikes of agricultural workers in Italy during 1901 and the economic consequences, and arbitration in labour disputes. The author also deals with the representation of agricultural interests on official bodies, and with financial questions, etc.

Comité central industriel de Belgique. *Liste des établissements industriels affiliés, classés par groupements et par spécialités,* octobre 1926. Brussels, 1926 276 + 148 pp., map.

List of industrial establishments affiliated to the Belgian Central Industrial Council classified in groups and according to their specialities, October 1926.

Co-operative Press Agency. *The People's Year Book. The Annual of the English and Scottish Wholesale Societies 1926.* Ninth year of publication. Manchester, Co-operative Wholesale Society ; Glasgow, Scottish Co-operative Wholesale Society, 1926. 336 pp.

Cutten, George B. *The Threat of Leisure.* New Haven, Yale University Press ; London, Humphrey Milford, 1926. x + 166 pp.

Deutsche Krankenkasse. *Jahrbuch der Krankenversicherung 1925.* Berlin, 1926. 304 pp.

Deutscher Textilarbeiter-Verband. *Die Heimarbeit in der deutschen Textilindustrie.* Berlin, Textil-Praxis, 1925. 176 pp., illustr.

Die Verhandlungen des dreiunddreissigsten Evengelisch-Sozialen Kongresses in Saarbrücken am 25.-28. Mai 1926. Göttingen, Vandenhoeck und Ruprecht, 1926. 174 pp.

Report on the thirty-first Evangelical-Social Congress held at Saarbruck, 25-27 May 1926.

Dotation Carnegie pour la Paix internationale. Direction des Relations et de l'Education. *Enquête sur les livres scolaires d'après guerre.* Volume I. *France, Belgique, Allemagne, Autriche, Grande-Bretagne, Italie, Bulgarie.* Second edition. Paris, Centre européen de la Dotation Carnegie, 1925. 452 pp.

Second edition of a volume first published in 1923 (see *International Labour Review,* Vol. X, No. 4, October 1924, p. 719). The first investigations regarding post-war school books, the results of which are reported in this volume, were confined to seven countries (France, Belgium, Germany, Austria, Great Britain, Italy and Bulgaria) ; the enquiry has been extended and further volumes are now in preparation. Volume II, devoted like the first to European belligerent countries, will cover the Baltic States, Belgium (Flemish speaking districts), Greece, Hungary, Ireland, Luxemburg, Poland, Roumania, Russia, Czechoslovakia, Turkey and the Kingdom of the Serbs, Croats and Slovenes. Volume III will deal with European neutral countries and with Mediterranean countries (Egypt, Spain, Netherlands, Portugal, Scandinavian States and Switzerland). Volume IV will cover the principal extra-European countries : British Dominions, United States, South American countries, China, Japan, etc.

Ettinger, J. *Emek Jisreel, ein blühendes Gebiet, sein Verfall und sein Wiederaufbau.* Jerusalem, Keren Hajessod, 1926. 37 pp., illustr.

Mr. Ettinger gives an account of the work done, with the assistance of the Palestine Foundation Fund (Keren Hajessod), to colonise an important district in Palestine. It is claimed that all the different forms of settlement both on the land and in towns which are found in Palestine as a whole can be seen in this district, so that a study of this colonisation work gives a good idea of what is being accomplished throughout the territory.

Folmer, A. *Arbeidsmarkt en Arbeidsbemiddeling ; Voorkoming en Bestrijding van Werkloosheid ; Werkloosheidsversekering.* Reprint from the Annual Report of the Netherlands Ministry of Labour 1925 (Chapter relating to unemployment insurance and placing). Pp. 167-230.

Mr. Folmer, director of the Netherlands unemployment service, makes a general survey of unemployment from 1917 to 1925 to which he adds a considerable amount of statistical data and an analysis of the principles on which are based placing and unemployment insurance in the Netherlands.

An analysis of the statistics relating to the period dealt with was given in the June and December 1926 issues of the *International Labour Review.*

Gagg, Margarita. *Wesen und Ausgabe des Arbeiterinnenschutzes.* Frauenfeld, Huber und Co., 1925.

Gemählling, Paul. *Statistiques choisies et annotées.* Paris, Société anonyme du Recueil Sirey, 1926. 150 pp.

Germain-Martin, H. *De la prétendue faillite des lois économiques depuis 1924.* Thesis for the degree of Doctor of Political Economy in the University of Paris. Paris, Librairie de droit et de jurisprudence Ernest Sagot et Cie., 1925. 374 pp.

The author maintains that the old economic laws still hold good despite the events of the war and the post-war period. The book includes a bibliography.

Gesamtverband der Krankenkassen Deutschlands. *Entgegnung des Gesamtverbandes der Krankenkassen Deutschlands E. V. in Berlin auf die Denkschrift des Verbandes der Aerzte Deutschlands betreffend die Arztkosten in der Krankenversicherung.* Berlin. 24 pp.

Gesellschaft für Soziale Reform. *Reform der deutschen Sozialversicherung. Klassenverschiebung nach dem Kriege. Bericht über die Verhandlungen der IX. Generalversammlung der Gesellschaft für Soziale Reform in Köln am 8. und 9. Mai 1925.* Heft 76 (11. Band, Heft 2). Jena, Gustav Fischer, 1926. IV + 125 pp.

Report on the proceedings of the ninth general meeting of the German Society for Social Reform held at Cologne, 8-9 May 1925, together with reports on the reform of social insurance in Germany by Dr. Paul KAUFMANN, and on reclassification after the war by Dr. Franz EULENBURG.

Haas-Schneider, J. *Die Gewerkschaftsbewegung, deren Wesen und Aufgaben. Eine Beurteilung der Gewerkschaftsidee vom protestantischen Standpunkte aus.* Chur, A. Bock, 1926. 116 pp. 2 fr.

The author considers the task of trade unionism from the Protestant standpoint.

Hall, W. Clarke. *Children's Courts.* London, Allen and Unwin, 1926. 287 pp.

The book is a revision of the author's earlier work, *The State and the Child,* with the addition of much new matter, based on many years' experience as judge in a Juvenile Court in England. The causes of delinquency, the delinquents, the courts where offences are tried, the various methods of dealing with offenders and many kindred matters are discussed at length and a chapter is devoted to the methods adopted by other nations. The work is a valuable contribution to the literature of child delinquency.

Jäkel, Dr. Gerhard. *Die gesetzliche Regelung der Arbeitszeit. Eine systematische Darstellung.* Schriften des Instituts für Arbeitsrecht an der Universität Leipzig, herausgegeben von Dr. E. JACOBI. Berlin, Reimar Hobbing, 1926. 106 pp.

Joint Foreign Committee of the Board of Deputies of British Jews and the Anglo-Jewish Association. *The League of Nations, Geneva, 1926. Report of the Secretary*

and Special Delegate of the Joint Foreign Committee on Questions of Jewish Interest at the Seventh Assembly of the League. Presented to the Board of Deputies of British Jews and the Council of the Anglo-Jewish Association, November 1926. London, 1926. 40 pp.

Kammer für Handel, Gewerbe und Industrie in Wien. *Bericht über die Industrie, den Handel und die Verkehrsverhältnisse in Wien und Niederösterreich während des Jahres 1925.* Vienna, 1926. XXV + 559 pp.

Report of the Viennese Chamber of Commerce and Industry on industry and trade in Vienna and Lower Austria during 1925.

Konsumentenkammer Hamburg (Kammer der Vereinigungen nichtgewerblicher Verbraucher). *Bericht über das Jahr 1926.* Hamburg, 1926. 80 pp., diagrams.

Report of the Private Consumers' Chamber of Hamburg for 1926.

Körper und Arbeit. Handbuch der Arbeitsphysiologie. Edited by Dr. Edgar Atzler. Leipzig, G. Thieme, 1927. XII + 770 pp., illustr. 42 mk. 50.

This treatise, edited under the direction of Professor Atzler, is the most recent work published on the physiology of labour. Each article is written by an expert on the subject dealt with. In the first part, which is theoretical, the writers consider functional anatomy, the physiology of the muscles, the senses and the nervous system, the mechanism of posture and movement, respiration, circulation, metabolism and vital energy. This part of the book includes a chapter on the theory of fatigue. The second part examines occupational aptitudes, the physiology of the worker as a factor in scientific management, the practical problem of fatigue, the question of nourishment, clothing, the relation between physical exercise and work, the action of certain chemical substances on the organism (alcohol, cocaine, etc.). Each chapter is followed by a copious bibliography. An index of subjects and an index of authors facilitate reference.

Labour Party. *Report of the Twenty-Sixth Annual Conference of the Labour Party, Margate, 1926.* London, The Labour Party. 384 pp. 1s.

Lamb, David C. *Our Heritage — The Empire. A Report on some aspects of the King's Overseas Dominions undertaken chiefly in the interests of Empire Migration and Settlement 1925-1926.* Foreword by General Booth. London, 1926. 40 pp.

Lechtape, Heinrich. *Die deutschen Arbeitgeberverbände. Ihre volkswirtschaftliche Funktion und ihre soziologischen Grundlagen.* Münster Wirtschafts- und Sozialwissenschaftliche Abhandlungen, Heft 3. Leipzig, Quelle, 1926. 66 pp.

A study on employers' associations in Germany.

Leys, Norman. *Kenya.* Introduction by Professor Gilbert Murray. Third edition. London, The Hogarth Press, 1926. 425 pp. 4s. 6d.

This book was reviewed in the *International Labour Review* for March 1925 (pp. 440-441). The third edition gives in a preface the developments which the author regards as of chief consequence during the four years since the first edition was written. With regard to labour, one new feature is the progress of the Kavirondo Taxpayers' Association. Reorganised by Archdeacon Owen for purposes of social betterment, it has inevitably come to consider matters such as security of land tenure, rates of wages, and penal sanctions for labour offences, and there seems a likelihood that it will eventually assume the functions of a trade union. A second development, the author shows, is the appreciation by the labourers of their greater economic liberty, which, however, is sometimes shown in regrettable fashion. Demand for labourers being so much greater than supply, masters dare not discharge men for carelessness or impertinence. The results of partial liberation affect good as well as bad employers. Many Europeans who try hard to do their duty have undeservedly suffered heavy loss in consequence of the discovery by some natives that wage earning can be avoided without incurring the severe penalties formerly inflicted.

Lindsay, Kenneth. *Social Progress and Educational Waste. Being a study of the "Free-place" and Scholarship System.* Introduction by Viscount Haldane

Studies in Economics and Political Science, edited by the Director of the London School of Economics and Political Science, No. 88. London, G. Routledge and Sons, 1926. VII + 215 pp. 7s. 6d.

Losowsky, A. *Die englisch-russische Gewerkschaftskonferenz.* Berlin, Führer-Verlag, 1925. 111 pp.

Magyar Mezogazdák Szövetkezete. *Harmincharmadik üzleti jelentés az 1924-1925 üzletévről.* Budapest, "Patria", 1925. 16 pp.

Annual report of the Hungarian Agricultural Co-operative Society for 1924-1925. Includes a statistical table showing the development of the society over thirty-three years.

March, Lucien. *Mouvement des prix et des salaires pendant la guerre.* Histoire économique et sociale de la guerre mondiale (série française). Publications de la Dotation Carnegie pour la Paix universelle. Paris, les Presses universitaires de France ; New Haven, U.S.A., Yale University Press, 1925. XII + 335 pp., tables. 32 fr.

The first part of this statistical study of prices and wages in France during the war describes the movement of prices, cost of living, and wages before the outbreak of hostilities. The second part describes the movement during the war of wholesale prices for foodstuffs, manufactures, and transport and compares the general movement of wholesale prices and that of other economic factors. A chapter is devoted to the retail prices of foodstuffs and other objects of first necessity, and the general movement of retail prices and cost of living according to regions ; it also compares the movement of wholesale with that of retail prices. Another chapter describes the movement of wages in various branches of industry, and includes a special section on women's wages. In conclusion it compares the movement of prices with that of the cost of living.

Muret, Maurice. *Le crépuscule des nations blanches.* Bibliothèque politique et économique. Paris, Payot, 1925. 234 pp. 15 fr.

—— *The Twilight of the White Races.* Translated by Mrs. TOUZALIN. London, Fisher Unwin, 1926. 286 pp. 10s. 6d.

In this interesting discussion of the problem of relationships between races and of the growing consciousness of subject peoples, the author comes to the conclusion that the white races of mankind have passed the noon-day of their power and prestige in the world and have reached the "twilight" of their ascendency.

In turning aside violence, however, softening conflicts, and arbitrating upon differences, the author considers that the League of Nations, established on a broader and more universal basis, will have a great part to play. "The brown and the yellow races, as well as the white, comprise thoughtful and prudent men, and it would be reassuring and uplifting to see this élite of humanity deliberating together at Geneva as to the mutual concessions necessary between races."

National Education Association of the United States. *Addresses and Proceedings of the Sixty-Third Annual Meeting held at Indianapolis, Indiana, 28 June-3 July 1925.* Vol. 63. Washington, National Education Association, 1925. XI + 1092 pp.

—— *Proceedings of the Sixty-Fourth Annual Meeting held at Philadelphia, Pennsylvania, 27 June-2 July 1926.* Vol. 64. Washington, National Education Association. 1208 pp.

National Institute of Industrial Psychology. *Vocational Guidance Experiments carried out by a Grant from the Carnegie United Kingdom Trust. Second Report of Progress, 30 November 1926.* 12 pp.

Phelan, E. J. *Ireland and the International Labour Organisation.* Reprinted from *Studies*, March 1926. 18 pp.

Pietri-Tonnelli, Alfonso de. *Traité d'économie rationnelle.* Translated from the third Italian edition by H. GAMBIER. Bibliothèque internationale d'économie politique, publiée sous la direction d'Alfred BONNET. Paris, Marcel Giard, 1927. 640 pp. 90 fr.

The experimental science of economic phenomena, or rational economy, has made considerable progress due to the synthetic theories of economic stability

derived from the mathematical investigations of Cournot, Walras and Pareto. In the book under consideration, the author, while taking into account the contributions of other mathematicians, gives a personal and extremely detailed exposition of the principal theorems connected with the study of economic stability.

The volume includes a large number of diagrams and an analytical table of contents.

Pisenti, Gustavo. *L'assicurazione contro gli infortuni sul lavoro è una istituzione di previdenza sociale ?* Reprinted from *Le Assicurazione sociali*, March-April 1926. Rome, Cassa nazionale per le assicurazioni sociali. 28 pp.

—— *Le assicurazione sociali nella lotta contro le malattie sociali. Note di viaggio. Conferenza al corso di legislazione sociale e di medicina del lavoro. Anno IV°.* Turin, Istituto provinciale di Previdenza sociale, 1926. 55 pp.

Prato, Giuseppe. *Il Piemonte e gli effetti della guerra sulla sua vita economica e sociale.* Storia economica e sociale della guerra mondiale (serie italiana). Pubblicazioni della Fondazione Carnegie per la Pace internazionale, Sezione di Storia ed Economia. Bari, G. Lateza; New Haven, Yale University Press. xv + 241 pp.

Professor Prato's study on social and economic life in Piedmont during the war examines the effects of the war on industry, dealing more particularly with the great munition undertakings, and the character of the labour movement. It describes different elements in Piedmontese society, readjustments of income and expenditure, housing conditions and the social and political outlook. It also considers these factors during the post-war period of adjustment.

Redford, Arthur: *Labour Migration in England 1800-1850.* Manchester, London and New York, Longmans Green and Co., 1926. xvi + 174 pp., maps.

This book, written by the Sir Ernest Cassel Lecturer in Commerce in the University of London, was inspired by a desire to realise the social significance of the industrial revolution ; the author considered that a study of the contemporary movements of population was likely to shed a welcome light on the subject. The book deals, except in a single chapter devoted to migration to other countries, exclusively with migration within the British Isles. This migration was mainly from the country into the towns and Professor Redford is able to show that " the population changes which accompanied the industrial revolution did not consist of a simple transference of population from the South and East of England to the North and West. " There were a number of absorbing centres and the intensity of migration diminished fairly uniformly as the distance from the centre increased. The movement was, therefore, a short-distance migration, especially as regards agrarian migration, but also to an unexpected extent as regards industrial migration. This short-distance characteristic was moreover not due to the inadequacy of transport facilities, for the improvement of these facilities caused only a slight modification in the general trend of the movement.

Redlich, Joseph. *Oesterreichische Regierung und Verwaltung im Weltkriege.* Carnegie-Stiftung für Internationale Friede. Abteilung für Volkswirtschaft und Geschichte. Wirtschafts- und Sozialgeschichte des Weltkrieges (Oesterreichische und Ungarische Serie). Vienna, Hölder, 1925. xix + 303 pp.

Professor Redlich shows what changes were introduced in the constitution and the functions of economic administration in Austria as a result of the world war.

Rignano, Eugenio and Stamp, Sir Josiah. *The Social Signification of Death Duties.* Adapted from Dr. Schultz's translation from the Italian of Eugenio Rignano. London, Noel Douglas, 1925. 168 pp. 5s.

Rockefeller Foundation. *Annual Report 1925.* New York. ix + 521 pp.

Sarablanov, V. *Pourquoi la N. E. P. ?* Dans l'U.R.S.S., No. 2. Paris, Librairie de l'Humanité, 1925. 44 pp. 1 fr. 50.

Schloesser, Robert. *Der Spargedanke in der Konsumgenossenschaftsbewegung.* Verbrauchergenossenschaftliche Bücherei Nr. 9, herausgegeben vom Reichsverband deutscher Konsumvereine. Cologne, " Gepag ", Grosseinkaufs- und Produktions-Aktiengesellschaft deutscher Konsumvereine, 1926. 26 pp.

Describes the co-operative savings banks of the German distributive co-operative societies.

Schmidt-Kehl, Dr. L. *Die deutsche Fabrikpflegerin, Schriften aus dem Gesamtgebiet der Gewerbehygiene.* Neue Folge, Heft 15. Herausgegeben von der deutschen Gesellschaft für Gewerbehygiene. Berlin, Julius Springer, 1926. 31 pp. 1 mk. 80.

This pamphlet describes the activities of women superintendents in German factories: inspection of working premises, consultations given to the staff, the part played by women superintendents in connection with the engagement, change of occupation and discharge of workers, etc., and external activities, such as visiting the sick. A special chapter is devoted to the relations of women superintendents with the management, the works councils and the workers. A short review of the difficulties attaching to their occupation, an outline of the qualities required in a woman factory superintendent and some considerations on the future development of the profession complete Dr. Schmidt-Kehl's study.

Schweizerischer Städteverband. *Protokoll über die Verhandlungen der Delegiertenversammlung am 21. und 22. August 1926 in Basel.* Zurich, Art-Institut Orell Füssli, 1926. 67 pp.

Verbatim report of the annual meeting of the Swiss Urban Association held at Basle, 21-22 August 1926. One of the reports submitted at the meeting deals with unemployment insurance and the activities of the communes in this connection; another relates to the regulation of traffic in the towns.

Secrétariat des Paysans Suisses, *La Révision de la loi fédérale sur l'expropriation. Rapport du Secrétariat des Paysans Suisses sur le projet du Conseil fédéral relatif à une nouvelle loi sur l'expropriation.* Publication No. 83. Brugg, 1926. 151 pp.

This is a careful examination from the point of view of agricultural interests of the proposals for an amended Swiss Federal Act on expropriation of land. The existing Act of 1 May 1850 admittedly requires revision. The matter was first considered in 1913 and was taken up again after the war. The Swiss Peasants' Association is of opinion that, as the Act often affects agricultural lands, special attention should be paid to agricultural interests, and discusses a Government Bill of 21 June 1926, section by section, making certain proposals of its own. The booklet is a useful study of the details of an Act for the expropriation of lands for public purposes.

Smith, Edwin W. *The Christian Mission in Africa. A study based on the proceedings of the International Conference at Le Zoute, Belgium, 14-21 September 1926.* London and New York, International Missionary Council, 1926. VIII + 192 pp., map.

This important conference, attend by some two hundred and fifty leading administrators, educationalists and missionaries fully representative of Protestant evangelisation in Africa, has found an able unofficial reporter in Mr. Edwin W. Smith, who has added to the documents of the Conference an ordered appreciation of the various problems with which it dealt.

The chapter on land and labour in Africa is of special value, the author enumerating the hundred or so fundamental questions by which the application of the principle of trusteeship can be tested. The Economics Section of the Conference, which dealt with these matters, reviewed as far as it was able the conditions of labour in the various territories. It found them to vary very considerably in regard to the liberty accorded to the natives and in their treatment as workers, some being, according to Mr. Smith, shameful in the extreme. Following this examination the Conference adopted a number of resolutions. The following quotation may be taken as embodying its economic faith: "It is recognised, not only by missionaries, but by administrators, that the future of the Continent is bound up with the moral, physical and intellectual development of the African people."

The volume contains the texts of the recommendations and resolutions adopted by the Conference — including the resolution on labour in which *inter alia* the Conference welcomed "the action of the International Labour Office in establishing a commission of experts, whose advice may be sought in regard to questions affecting native labour" — summary minutes of the Conference, a list of delegates and consultative members and certain of the speeches and papers prepared for the Conference.

Société d'études et d'informations économiques. *Annuaire général de la France et de l'étranger 1926.* 7e année. Paris, Librairie Larousse, 1926. XXIV + 1140 pp.

Year book of France and other countries, 1926, published by the French Society for the study of economic questions.

Supino, Camillo. *Le basi economiche del movimento operaio.* Milan, Rome and Naples, Società editrice Dante Alighieri di Alberghi, Segati e Co., 1925. VII + 221 pp.

Tänzler, F. *Internationale Sozialpolitik.* Berlin, Vereinigung der deutschen Arbeitgeberverbände, 1926. 160 + IV pp.

Mr. Tänzler's contribution to the series of studies published by the German Employers' Federation is devoted to international social policy. The work is in four parts : the first is historical and deals with the pioneers of social policy and the origin of Part XIII of the Peace Treaty ; the second is devoted to the International Labour Organisation ; the third considers the results attained, while the fourth contains the author's observations and conclusions.

In the last part Mr. Tänzler, examining the nature and importance of the International Labour Organisation, writes : "The creation of the International Labour Organisation has certainly abolished or limited a certain number of rights appertaining to the several States ; by the mere fact of appointing delegates to the Conference, each State renounces in a certain measure its sovereignty as regards the questions on the Agenda. It can, of course, by instructions given to its plenipotentiaries, limit the latter's powers, and does often avail itself of this right, but the other representatives, i.e. the employers' and the workers' delegates, enjoy the same rights as the Government delegates, of whom they are completely independent, and the State is sometimes obliged, against its will, to recognise the legality of a decision adopted by the Conference, and to submit this decision to Parliament within a stated time. The examination of credentials undoubtedly shows whether account has been taken of the trade union organisation in the different countries. Each State which ratifies a Draft Convention lays itself open to a measure of control by other States. In spite of this, however, or rather perhaps for this reason, these limitations should be interpreted in a purely restrictive sense ; it does not at all follow that each State renounces its sovereign power in favour of the Organisation."

Further conclusions drawn by Mr. Tänzler relate to the limits within which the competence of the International Labour Conference should be confined. The author also discusses the idea of social justice as opposed to competition between countries. He touches on the solidarity which exists in this connection in the employers' and in the workers' ranks, and gives a brief outline of the tasks and the activities of the International Organisation of Industrial Employers. Finally, after indicating the limits to international social policy, the author examines the attitude and the part played by Germany in the International Labour Organisation.

Thorn, Willard Long. *Business Annals. United States, England, France, Germany, Austria, Russia, Sweden, Netherlands, Italy, Argentina, Brazil, Canada, South Africa, Australia, India, Japan, China.* Introductory chapter by Wesley C. MITCHELL and foreword by Edwin F. GAY. Publications of the National Bureau of Economic Research, No. 8. New York, 1926. 380 pp.

The book is a collection of material concerning business cycles in 17 countries (enumerated above) extending over periods which range from 36 to 136 years. In a simple and almost tabular form, the Annals trace for each country separately the fluctuations in manufacture, constructional work, employment, domestic and foreign trade, prices, speculation, financial operations and agriculture. They also note the more important non-economic events which are, nevertheless, of a nature to influence economic activity, such as war, diplomatic tension, domestic disorders, changes in political administration and economic policy, droughts, floods, earthquakes, epidemics, etc. The Annals are preceded by a long introduction by Wesley C. MITCHELL, in which the different aspects of the cyclical fluctuations of business are discussed, and an attempt made at international comparisons of the economic phenomena.

Business Annals is a very concise presentation of facts relating to the economic history of recent times.

Transvaal University College (University of South Africa). *Calendar, 1928.* Pretoria, Wallach's Printing and Publishing Co., 1927. 320 pp.

Tyrnauer, Alfred, *Amerika und seine Einwanderer.* Vienna and Leipzig, Wilhelm Braumüller Universitätsverlagsbuchhandlung, 1926. 104 pp., illustr., map.

The author has aimed at producing as objective a study of the United States as possible and the result is a brief but clear analysis of the present economic, cultural and political situation in that country, together with an historical introduction and a section on its probable future development.

The second part of the book, which is intended more particularly for those who propose to settle in the United States, gives a number of facts and statistics concerning various aspects of American life and conditions.

Union des industries chimiques. *Annuaire 1926.* Paris. 542 pp.

Year book of the French Union of Employers' Associations in the Chemica Industries for 1926.

Union Helvétia (Société centrale des employés suisses d'hôtels et de restaurants). *Annuaire 1927.* Lucerne. 180 pp.

Year book of the Swiss Union of Hotel and Restaurant Employees for 1927.

Université libre de Bruxelles. Institut de Sociologie Solvay. *La Belgique restaurée.* Etude sociologique publiée sous la direction de Ernest MAHAIM. Brussels, Lamertin, 1926. XI + 687 pp.

An important work on the restoration of Belgium after the war, arranged in ten parts which deal respectively with: (1) "Population", by R. OLBRECHTS; (2) "Devastated territories and reparations", by G. SMETS; (3) "Agriculture", by G. DE LEENER; (4) "Industry", by G. DE LEENER; (5) "Foreign Trade" by G. DE LEENER; (6) "Labour", by Max GOTTSCHALK; (7) "Public finances, currency and the money market", by B. S. CHLEPNER; (8) "Wealth and well-being" by E. MAHAIM; (9) "The Colony" (the economic situation of the Belgian Congo, and its contribution to the restoration of Belgium), by G. HOSTELET; (10) "A General Review", by E. MAHAIM. In the chapters devoted to labour (Part 6) Mr. GOTTSCHALK considers the trade union movement in Belgium before, during and after the war, describes the working of industrial joint committees, and examines the question of wages, hours, and social insurance. He devotes a chapter to emigration and immigration and another to co-operation.

"This is a work of great sociological interest," writes Mr. Mahaim in the preface. "It states clearly the various points of a concrete present-day problem. Should we arrive at its solution, we shall have brought a useful contribution to the study of the constituent elements of the economic life of a modern state."

Vinacke, Harold M. *Problems of Industrial Development in China. A preliminary study.* Princeton University Press; London, Humphrey Milford, 1926. IX + 205 pp. 9s.

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Ball, Dr. Kurt. *Einführung in das Steuerrecht.* Schriftenreihe der Verwaltungsakademie, Nr. 3. Herausgegeben von Prof. Dr. E. HEILFRON. Mannheim, Berlin, Leipzig, J. Bensheimer, 1925. XVI + 370 pp.

Beckerath, H. von. *Industrielle Kartellprobleme der Gegenwart. Ein Ueberblick.* Schriften der Vereinigung für staatswissenschaftliche Fortbildung, Heft 13. Berlin, Gersbach, 1926. 40 pp.

Fantini, Dr. Oddone. *I diritti del Lavoro.* Preface by Benito MUSSOLINI. Milan, Rome, Naples, Società editrice "Dante Alighieri" di Albrighi, Segali e Co., 1925. 153 pp.

Garrett, G. *Ouroboros or the Mechanical Extension of Mankind.* London, Kegan Paul, Trench, Trübner and Co.; New York, E. P. Dutton and Co. 93 pp.

Gautherot, Gustave, *Le monde communiste.* Paris, Editions Spes, 1925. IV + 259 pp. 12 fr.

Hadrich, J. *Wirtschaftstaschenbuch für wissenschaftliche Assistenten.* Im auftrage des Vorstandes Deutschen akademischen Assistentenverbandes herausgegeben. Leipzig, Georg Thieme, 1925. VIII + 557 pp.

Haensel, Dr. Paul. *Das Steuersystem Sowjetrusslands.* Berlin, Dr. Hans Preiss, 1926. 176 pp.

Hamilton, W. H. and Wright, Helen R: *The Case of Bituminous Coal.* Publications of the Institute of Economics. New York, Macmillan Company, 1925. XI + 310 pp.

Heller, Dr. W. *Nationalökonomie. Theorie und Geschichte.* Meyer's Wörterbücher fur Recht und Wirtschaft. Halberstadt, H. Meyer, 1926. XIII + 193 pp.

Hemard, Joseph. *Théorie et pratique des assurances terrestres.* Vol. I. *La notion, l'évolution, la science de l'assurance terrestre.* Vol. II. *Le domaine d'application, le rôle de l'assurance terrestre.* Paris, Recueil Sirey, 1924 and 1925.

Koratch, Vitomir. *Svobodna priveda.* Belgrade, Tsvijanovitch, 1925. 86 pp.

Machefel, L. *La production et le commerce des céréales. Statistique, législation douanière, réglementation intérieure.* Paris, Librairie agricole de la Maison rustique. 127 pp.

Notz, Dr. Emil. *Die säkulare Entwicklung der Kaufkraft des Geldes. Für Basel in der Perioden 1800-1833 und 1892-1923 nebst internationalen Verglichen dargestellt.* Jena, Fischer, 1925. VIII + 283 pp., diagrams.

Steffes, Dr. Johann. *Die Staatsauffassung der Moderne. Auf der Grundlage der kulturphilosophischen Zeitideen.* Schriften zur deutschen Politik, 8. und 9. Heft, herausgegeben von Dr. G. SCHREIBER. Freiburg-im-Breisgau, Herder und Co., 1925. XV + 169 pp.

Strakosch, Siegfried. *Europa als Teuerungsgrund.* Vienna, Holder-Pichler-Tempsky, 1926. 63 pp.

Yurovsky, L. N. *Currency Problems and Policy of the Soviet Union.* London, Parsons, 1925. 152 pp. 7s. 6d.

ERRATUM

1926, Vol. XIV.

No. 6, December, *Annual Holidays for Workers and Collective Agreements,* the sentence beginning on line 8, p. 818, should read as follows:

"The maximum holiday was six to twelve working days for *48.9* per cent. of the workers and employees, and over twelve days for *24.7* per cent."

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INTERNATIONAL LABOUR REVIEW

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International Labour Legislation in the Light of Economic Theory

by

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The subject of Professor Feis's article is given an especial interest by its close connection with the question whether the regulation of labour conditions by international action is either legitimate or desirable. In recent years comment has often turned on the apparent contradiction between the object of such regulation and the conclusions of the "classical" economic theory. If, as the current economic doctrine teaches, the standard of living in any country depends upon a series of influences which are essentially national in origin, is there in fact any reason to suppose that the conditions of life and labour of the working classes can be improved by some form of joint international action? Is there any possible way of reconciling the two conflicting points of view — the one holding that international competition is the essential lever for raising each country to its highest level of prosperity, the other that international competition depresses labour conditions and creates hardships which can only be remedied by international action?

In trying to answer these questions the author examines, in the light of the classical theory, the intrinsic value and possible effects of the principles laid down in Part XIII of the Treaty of Versailles. The analysis is marked by freedom from preconceived ideas and dogmatism in any form; the comparison of the two seemingly contradictory opinions provides an opportunity for a kind of stock-taking of the whole question, covering all its aspects and its nearer and remoter forms. The result is neither a defence nor a criticism, and still less a system; it is simply the outcome of the reflections of an impartial economist on the numerous questions which have presented themselves for solution. The aim of the article is not so much to reach a clear and decisive conclusion as to show the complexity of the problem and stimulate the reader to devote further thought to it himself.

I

THE economic theories presented in the "classical" texts explain that the workers of different countries receive very different wage returns in some countries from those in others, and that the conditions in which they work and live also vary greatly. The existence of these differences of income and condition emphasised in these texts is undisputed. It is also a part of the generally accepted body of economic theory that the conditions of the work and life of the wage earners in any country depend primarily upon the real income of the country; that even making allowances for possible variations in the sharing out of the product within any country, hours of work will be long, wages low, and the conditions burdensome if the total real income of the country is low in relation to the number of inhabitants, and that the opposite conditions will prevail when the economic effort of the country is more effective. In short, economic theory presents and strives to account for a great contrast in the economic lot of the workers of different countries, and regards this contrast as in the main ineradicable.

The movement to improve conditions of labour on an international scale by international action appears in some respects to run counter to these conclusions. That movement, as represented by the work of the International Labour Organisation, is engaged in an effort to stimulate national action, in accord with international agreements, towards the achievement of a universal minimum standard of satisfactory labour conditions. Or, as stated differently by the Director of the International Labour Office:

> The new feature introduced by the Peace Treaties consists in the fact that equitable labour conditions established by national law or adopted by means of International Conventions are henceforward to constitute an inevitable condition and a natural necessity with which industrial employers must reckon in the same way as they reckon with geographical factors.

This purpose of creating a minimum world-wide standard of satisfactory labour conditions inspires the work of the Organisation. It is implied in the Preamble to the constitution of the Organisation, and certainly both employers and trade unionists in the countries where labour conditions are better than elsewhere customarily hold the view that substantial uniformity or equality of conditions forms the only just terms of international competition, and seek to create that uniformity by international action.

II

This paper is written to examine a set of closely connected questions : (1) whether this difference of doctrine between widely accepted economic theory and the effort to regulate labour conditions by international action is a real or only superficial difference ; (2) to explain how such difference as may be real has arisen ; (3) to examine in the light of both sets of doctrines the possible economic gains and losses which may result from such action ; (4) to indicate the problem by which countries possessing different conditions of labour are faced by projects of international labour regulation, and the benefits and losses they must calculate ; (5) to analyse briefly the efforts of the International Labour Organisation to take into account the possible losses and difficulties that might arise from its action, and still to carry out its main purposes.

These purposes require first of all a brief restatement and reconsideration of certain relevant economic doctrines which bear upon the problem raised by international action for the purpose of improving labour conditions. The restatement will be brief, and run in accordance with the system of assumptions and ideas as presented, say, in the books of Alfred Marshall (and to be understood, therefore, as presented by him, as only an introduction to the complex actuality of contemporary society). It is limited to those points of economic theory which present themselves only when international action is under consideration, as apart from those which present themselves when the contemplated action is only on a national scale. Thus, for example, it does not touch the controversies bearing upon the value of legislation as a means of regulating labour conditions ; for these arise whether action is on a national or an international scale.

The established economic doctrine holds that the productive activities of the people of each country are, under conditions of economic freedom, devoted to those industries and occupations which will yield the largest volume of valuable goods and services. This conclusion is expounded by its authors only as a rough approximation to the truth, and should not be taken as a defence of complete *laisser faire*. A grave modification arising out of the inequality of wealth and income in each country is always admitted, as well as many other qualifications arising out of special circumstances. But the main argument remains, and is, for one thing, the centre of the free trade position ; advocates of economic regulation have to prove that regulation is necessary to overcome some

obstacle to effective production, or that some important non-economic end must be served, as, for example, when a country subsidises its merchant marine.

This economic theory can be explained simply. There is a strong tendency for those who direct industry, who have land and capital, and employ labour, to use them in the ways which promise the greatest return. Further, in any particular use of these means of production two forms of competition must be met — internal and external. The internal competition is that of different industries and enterprises seeking the use of the limited supplies of land, labour, and capital. The highest bid for each tends generally to prevail, and the highest bid, the doctrine runs, comes from those who can employ the desired means of production in directions yielding the largest volume of valuable goods and services. External competition tends to extend the same effect further. As a result of this competition, in the absence of tariffs and other obstacles, the economic energies of each country are used in those industries which are carried on with the " greatest comparative advantage " as compared with the same industries in other countries. Such goods (and, to a much lesser extent, services) as can be procured more cheaply abroad than at home are imported, and paid for by exports requiring smaller outlay than the goods procured. Hence it is concluded that international competition, by leading to international specialisation, increases the real income of all peoples. This is the result indicated by general economic analysis; it will therefore have to be enquired at a later point why the opposite opinion is so strongly held — the opinion that international competition is injurious to the economic life of a country and depresses labour conditions, and therefore creates a need for international regulation of these conditions.

How great the total volume of valuable goods and services secured by the inhabitants of any country may be in relation to the number of inhabitants, the same body of economic doctrine goes on to explain, depends on many things. Chief among these are the natural resources of the country, its supply of capital, and the human energies, talents, organisation, and technique possessed and used in production. The volume of production and standard of living in any country depend upon the mingled effects of all these influences. The part played by any one cause or circumstance is always impossible to measure. Who can tell, for example, whether the high level of production and real incomes in the United States arises most from its varied, rich, and accessible

natural resources, its immense domestic market, the mastery of machine technique, or the hopefulness, boldness, and energy common among American workmen and business men, to mention only a few of the contributory causes? Since this is so, any explanation and judgement of the causes of the actual difference of productive effectiveness between different countries must be tentative and incomplete, and vary from instance to instance. Among these causes of difference a line is commonly drawn between those arising out of natural and physical conditions and those connected with human character, habits, and abilities. The significance of this line of division has been changed by the constant increase in human knowledge and changes in industrial technique. It is natural to believe that differences of productive effectiveness traceable to variations in human qualities, habits, and knowledge can be modified more easily and quickly than those due to variations in natural resources. Yet that has become by no means certain in many cases and instances. Both sets of causes are complex and infinite in variety. Some are immutable, some may be modified with relative ease. Correct and confident judgement in any case requires more knowledge and acumen than most men have; hence the constant conflict of opinion and prescription. Efforts to improve industrial conditions in any country are always at work. In view of the constant growth of population the struggle is one of life and death.

The difference in the productive effectiveness attained in different countries (I am still summarising the "classical" economic doctrines) is the primary cause of the contrasts in the conditions of life and labour of the wage earners in these countries, and is indeed, ordinarily measured by these contrasts. The relation between production and standards of living and work is evident and important. But it is not fixed or automatic; it is impossible to tell, within limits which may differ from time to time and from country to country, just what standard of working-class living can be attained under any given state of productive effectiveness. The question of what set of labour conditions may be maintained within any country is therefore always a matter of some difficulty to determine, and can only be settled by a course of bargaining and experiment. The process of sharing out the product of industry in every country always involves such bargaining and experiment, and sometimes industrial conflicts. The custom and morality of our industrial system leaves it open to each individual or group to secure as great a return in the form of conditions

or income as their position in the work of production and their bargaining strength make possible. In each country, whether economic effort results in the making of many goods or few, whether the goods be rice grains or electrical refrigerators, all groups carry on a continuous effort to maintain or improve their income and conditions. The assertions and demands which are the most highly organised and dramatic are those of the industrial workers, whose effort in most countries has developed into broad political and economic programmes designed to modify economic institutions and practices. The state, when it intervenes to regulate labour conditions, thus steps into an involved situation in which it is impossible to tell just what conditions may be supported by its industry, and can only hope to make a roughly correct judgement of the possibilities.

So much by way of restatement of the general conclusions of economic theory concerning the use and distribution of the economic energies of each country, and of the matters which determine existing conditions and standards. It is, of course, incomplete, and gives no attention to the numberless shades of difference of opinion on many of the points considered. Still it may serve as a restatement of " classical " economic doctrine upon the salient points of the economic situation in the midst of which the effort is being made to improve conditions of labour throughout the world by international action.

III

Joint international action for the improvement of labour conditions is being carried on by the International Labour Organisation. This institution was created by the Treaty of Versailles and its constitution is contained in Part XIII of that Treaty. The first section of the Preamble indicates the reasons for its creation :

> Whereas the League of Nations has for its object the establishment of universal peace, and such a peace can be established only if it is based upon social justice ;
>
> And whereas conditions of labour exist involving such injustice, hardship and privation to large numbers of people as to produce unrest so great that the peace and harmony of the world are imperilled ; and an improvement of these conditions is urgently required : as, for example, by the regulation of the hours of work, including the establishment of a maximum working day and week, the regulation of the labour supply, the prevention of unemployment, the provision of an adequate living wage, the protection of the worker against sickness, disease and injury

arising out of his employment, the protection of children, young persons and women, provisions for old age and injury, protection of the interests of the workers when employed in countries other than their own, recognition of the principle of freedom of association, the organisation of vocational and technical education and other measures ;

Whereas also the failure of any nation to adopt humane conditions of labour is an obstacle in the way of other nations which desire to improve the conditions in their own countries ;

The High Contracting Parties, moved by sentiments of justice and humanity as well as by the desire to secure the permanent peace of the world, agree to the following : . . .

In pursuance of these purposes the International Labour Organisation has in the nine Sessions of the Conference of its Members brought into being 23 international Conventions and 28 Recommendations. They deal with such subjects as the following : hours of labour, workmen's compensation insurance, weekly rest in industry, minimum age of employment, etc. The process of ratification has been tardy but continuous : up to the present (1 March 1927) there have been 217 acts of ratification of the various Conventions by States Members, and wherever ratification has taken place national law has been brought into substantial conformity with the terms of the Convention ratified. In addition, even when ratification has not been given, conditions and laws have been changed in many countries in the direction of the terms of the Conventions through voluntary action or national legislation. International consciousness and activity have grown up about these Conventions ; once the Conference comes to an agreement there arises pressure in each country, sometimes strong, sometimes weak, to meet its terms.

In any one article it is wholly impossible to deal with all the economic questions raised by these Conventions. In fact, the terms of each single Convention bring up problems connected with its own subject. In addition there exists the basic question of the circumstances and the extent to which it is sound economic policy to deal with the matters mentioned in Part XIII of the Peace Treaty by means of legislation, as is intended in the Conventions. Leaving this basic question out of consideration, as well as the many particular ones suggested by the terms of each Convention, there is one connected set of questions of broad and general significance to which I wish to turn, to try and examine them in the light of the body of economic doctrine summarised in the preceding section.

It may be observed in passing that the creation of a permanent institution to concern itself with labour conditions on an inter-

national scale was the product of experience which seemed to indicate its need, and not the product of theory. Those interested in the improvement of industrial conditions in various countries had more than once found that a desired change in labour conditions was hindered by the possibility that the same industry in some other country might secure a competitive advantage as a result of the change. This possibility is always present when the contemplated improvement involves a possible increase in production costs. The idea of resorting to joint international action is, therefore, natural in such contingencies. That is the train of thought which led to the creation of the International Labour Organisation. Its connection with the League of Nations lies in the fact that differences in conditions of labour have been in the past a source of international antagonism. We are familiar, for example, with the mingled fear and dislike invoked among the workmen of the United States and Europe by the bugaboo of the competition of the work of the Far East carried on under much poorer conditions. How often still, for further example, are the workmen of French, British, Italian, and German export industries confronted with each other's conditions as the chief reason why some desired improvement could not be attained. Such is the competitive experience which went to the making of Part XIII of the Peace Treaty. By the workman and often by the employer international competition is usually regarded as a force depressing his conditions.

But the preceding economic reasoning indicates that this view cannot be accepted as an accurate and complete statement of the effects of international competition. The general analysis, on the contrary, tended to indicate that international competition and exchange was an important means of increasing the real income of the nations engaged in it; it emphasised the fact that international competition tended to bring it about that the economic energies of each country were turned in the directions that would yield the greatest volume of valuable goods and services. The difficulties encountered by countries arising out of changes in the international competitive situation are regarded as only transitional, and incidental to the attainment of a new position of equilibrium by which all countries will benefit. That doctrine, when rigidly stated in the classical texts, further implies that the more advanced standards of the more productive countries cannot in the long run be affected deleteriously by the competition of

countries having lower standards — the standard of each resting upon the productive effectiveness of each competing country.

Can these opinions be reconciled ? I believe so. The first view is that naturally entertained by particular groups of workers and employers as producers ; they see their jobs or their economic power often menaced by foreign competition. The second view is the natural one when thinking of the people of a country as consumers, to whom international competition and exchange bring goods and resources on better terms than if no such competition occurred, and thus increase their real income. In the classical doctrine it is this viewpoint which is maintained and put in the forefront. That classical analysis assumed, for the purposes of its enquiry, that the workmen and capital within a country could quickly change their occupation, quit an industry where foreign competitors were proving able to undersell, and enter another industry which possessed a greater comparative advantage — the whole benefiting by the change. The opposition to international competition, the desire to regulate by international action the labour conditions in which it takes place, arises from facts and tendencies contrary to that assumption. It is dominated by the fact that within highly industrial countries the mobility of labour and capital — their capacity to shift themselves about from one industry to others under the pressure of competition — is slow, painful, and incomplete. Whole masses of men seem either unwilling or unable to shift their occupations in the older industrial countries in which few valuable natural resources remain unexploited. Only in countries undergoing rapid industrial expansion does a great shift in the employment of the means of production occur without serious difficulty. Despite all obstacles those influences which are recognised and summarised in the " principle of greatest comparative advantages " tend to assert themselves, but only slowly, overcoming the inertia of human beings, and bringing direct suffering in their courses. An example of all these difficulties, exceptional in intensity, is to be found in the coal industry in recent years. That vital industry has been characterised by overproduction since 1921 ; and the situation, instead of remedying itself in accordance with the main anticipations of classical doctrine, has grown worse. There has been little shift of men or resources into other industries, but instead an intense international combat in which each nation has tried to hold its place by special means.

> The British tried a subvention. The Dutch, who were losing a florin a ton, immediately exacted a subsidy from their Government. . . . In Germany, Belgium, Yugoslavia, and Czechoslovakia the Governments lowered their freight rates or applied discriminating tariffs to foreign coal. Holland, Poland, and Spain have tried tax exemptions, export bounties, and state purchase at high figures[1].

Under these conditions, somewhat different from those contemplated by the main body of economic theory, and viewing the matter from the point of view of the workers as producers and receivers of pay for production, international competition — and particularly shifts in the terms of international competition — may be and often is a force which tends to lower real wages and depress the conditions of labour in particular industries over considerable periods of time. This result ultimately ceases. A shifting of men and resources from the depressed industries to other industries ultimately results. And all the while this international competition may be of benefit to all consumers not affected by the depression. But under existing circumstances, with organised working men slow to move, with huge quantities of capital fixed in form, these international adjustments are slow and carry serious consequences, amounting at times to industrial disorganisation, as in Great Britain in 1926. To those directly affected it appears, and with considerable truth, that their wages and conditions are governed not so much by the level of industrial effectiveness within the country, as by the fluctuations in the terms of international competition to which they are subject. Their loss — in its direct and indirect effects — seems to, and sometimes may actually, outweigh the consumer's gain.

The effects that may be produced in a period of unusual tension and fluctuation in industrial competition are exemplified by the course of wages in different British industries between 1914 and the end of 1925. An extract from the Report of the Committee on Industry and Trade[2] gives the rate of percentage increase of weekly time wages in two groups of industries — the first group directly subject to international competition, the second group largely protected from it.

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[1] " A Survey of Coal Crisis Literature ", by Mack EASTMAN, in *International Labour Review*, Vol. XIII, No. 5, May 1926, pp. 623-624.

[2] *Survey of Industrial Relations*, pp. 88-91. London, H.M. Stationery Office, 1926.

PERCENTAGE INCREASE OF WEEKLY TIME WAGE RATES ON 31 DECEMBER 1920 AND 30 JUNE 1925, AS COMPARED WITH AUGUST 1914

Industry or occupation	Time wages per cent. of wages in August 1914	
	31 December 1920	30 June 1925
Exporting Industries		
Coal mining :		
Yorkshire	175	65
South Wales	190	58
Iron mining :		
Cleveland	200	30–40
Cumberland	200–300	35–43
Iron and steel smelting, rolling, etc.:		
North of England	241	62
Scotland	242	55
South Wales	Varied	21
Pig iron manufacture :		
Cumberland	300–350	50–85
Cleveland and Durham	225–300	40–85
Engineering :		
Ironmoulders	123	44
Labourers	210	76
Shipbuilding :		
Platers	123	35
Labourers	208	68
Cotton industry	160	61
Wool textile industry :		
Time workers	216	90
Chemical manufacture :		
Labourers	224	115
Boot and shoe manufacture :		
Men (heel building, etc.)	127	111
Sheltered Industries		
Building :		
Carpenters	152	84
Labourers	225	106
Railway Service :		
Engine drivers	126–130	85–95
Goods porters	215–247	126–153
Tramways :		
Drivers	140	94
Conductors	157	106
Printing :		
Hand compositors	162	107
Baking :		
Fore hands	135	88

The incidence of international competition since 1920 is apparent. The comment of the Committee on this question[1] is pertinent to our subject and in accordance with the general trend of the preceding analysis :

> The figures quoted tend to show not only that money rates of wages in the so-called " sheltered " employments exhibit a greater percentage increase since 1914 than in the exposed trades, but that the average levels of wages in many of those employments, both for skilled and for unskilled workers, are now materially higher than those generally prevailing in occupations which most nearly correspond to them in the more exposed trades. . . . Broadly speaking, it may be said that no industrial occupation is wholly " sheltered " in the sense that the remuneration appropriate to such occupation is in the long run independent of the world forces of supply and demand. Even if its products are not in direct competition with those of other countries, there are other channels, direct or indirect, through which competitive forces will make themselves felt . . . . But these levelling forces require a comparatively long period to produce their full effect, whereas in trades directly exposed to foreign competition the price at which the competing article will capture or fail to capture the market imposes immediate and obvious limits on the prices which can be charged and consequently on the resources available for wages and profits . . . . An exposed industry responds immediately to changes of economic conditions ; in the case of a " sheltered " industry there may be a " lag " of months or even years between such changes and the eventual readjustment. . . . In ordinary times the difficulty is but a limited one, but in times of great and sudden changes of prices and conditions, . . . the want of proportion between the remuneration of the exposed and " sheltered " industries may be and has in fact been substantial.

It is out of these circumstances that the support, theoretical and actual, comes for the regulation of international competition by international agreement upon labour conditions. Countries find that they cannot face the misery and disorganisation that arise from an unfavourable shift in their competitive position, and the organised workers strive to combat the worsening of their conditions. A measure of stability is sought by means of international agreement. It may be argued with force that the countries should, on the contrary, strive to encourage and aid mobility of their labour and capital within their boundaries. There can be no doubt that countries in which great mobility exists are better off. But the older industrial countries and the over-populated countries find this a counsel of perfection. For them it is virtually impossible to find fresh employment quickly for the tens or even hundreds of thousands of workers that may be engaged in a single industry. Besides, in most countries circumstances have com-

[1] *Ibid.*, pp. 14-15.

pelled the enactment of unemployment insurance and other legislation which tends to lessen the shifting of workers, and brings a fresh problem to the budget when serious unemployment occurs.

It is in these important differences of circumstance, prevailing rather than exceptional as far as post-war Europe is concerned, that a reconciliation with the classical economic theories must be sought. Under these conditions the gains and losses from unrestricted international competition are not so simply assessed; and likewise the good and bad results of interfering with that competition by means of international labour agreements are not to be judged simply and solely in the light of the unqualified conclusion that "in the long run" unrestricted international competition leads to the production of the largest possible volume of valuable goods and services in each country. They are to be judged by weighing a more complex set of possible good and bad results.

The prevention of misery and the avoidance of industrial disorganisation, which under existing conditions in many industrial countries would not bring its own quick end in accordance with the classical theory, are the economic ends sought in international action dealing with labour conditions. This effort thus becomes, in my interpretation, above all an effort to secure some measure of stability in relative labour conditions. Some economic loss may — nay, it can be said, will — result from this regulation of international competition. This loss may be in several directions: first, many consumers may have to pay somewhat more for certain products; secondly, the workers and capitalists of certain countries where the general level of industrial effectiveness is low may find themselves unable to enter certain industries which they could carry on under unrestricted international competition and which would yield higher returns than some already in existence; thirdly, the lack of freedom to revise standards may produce unemployment in some directions and countries, while avoiding it in others. These losses may be serious. But considering the present conditions of industry the gains may sometimes outweigh them — gains in the way of protection of the higher standards already obtained in some countries, in the partial stabilisation of the conditions of competition, in the creation of the necessity of finding new means of competitive effectiveness, in the possible avoidance of industrial strife. It is to be expected that the losses would be minimised by the anxiety of each country to guard its own interests before entering any international agreement.

The correctness of this opinion becomes more likely when it is reflected that in the absence of all international agreement it is possible for a temporary change in circumstances in any one country, say a temporary industrial depression, to affect seriously the standards in competing industries in other countries. The trade unions of each country, in particular, feel that the conditions which they have secured are always in danger of destruction even by the temporary difficulties experienced in other lands, even by the fluctuations in trade union strength abroad. Hence their firm support for international action and their tendency to disregard the economic losses they may suffer as consumers — and in some cases, if the terms of the Conventions do not fall within the productive capacity of their country, as producers.

I wish to develop somewhat further the possible losses and gains — dangers and advantages — of international labour legislation. A number of possibilities, half in the realm of fact, half in the realm of policy, require consideration. First, it must be observed that if a country establishes a minimum standard of labour conditions as part of a joint agreement, it thereby becomes more difficult for any new industry to arise within that country merely because it happens that it can benefit by conditions of labour especially low even for that country. In other words, it may help to prevent "sweating": it makes it more difficult for an industry to arise in a country merely because it can take advantage of the bargaining weakness of particular bodies of workers; it stimulates the effort to employ the same labour more advantageously and with better methods of production. In the event, however, that no adequate alternative employment exists for the groups of workers affected, the result will be unemployment.

The preceding line of thought may be carried a step further and applied to the competitive relations of different countries. If international agreements establishing minimum conditions of labour are ratified by those countries in which conditions are now very much poorer than in the more effective industrial countries, the result will be to prevent the further expansion of industry in these countries unless and until they can meet this standard. The countries where conditions are poorest have as yet relatively few industries competing in the international market. By international action terms would be created for the possible future growth of competition with those countries where higher standards have already been achieved. That, in my opinion, is an advisable step for the world, although certain immediate economic losses

will result, and these losses might fall most heavily on those countries in which conditions are already poorest.

So much by way of estimating the differences of doctrine between orthodox economic theorists and advocates of international labour legislation, as regards the effects of unregulated international competition. Another point of difference between the two schools lies in their difference of emphasis upon another set of possibilities. This set of possibilities is represented by the belief that joint action through a permanent organisation such as the International Labour Organisation, in the work of which governments, workers, and employers participate, might in itself do something to create the economic conditions making an improvement of labour conditions possible. There has been the hope that continued discussion and effort carried on through the International Labour Organisation would sharpen the consciousness of labour conditions, arouse greater co-operative effort within each country to improve them, and, by improving industrial relations and encouraging thought and action, produce an increase of productive effectiveness within each country. The possibility cannot be weighed apart from the whole state of industrial relations and methods existing at any given time and place. Akin to this possibility is another which undoubtedly has figured in the thoughts of the labour supporters of international action. That is the possibility that the promotion of joint action by such a body as the annual Conference of the International Labour Organisation would give moral strength and prestige to the workers of each country in their effort to secure as large a share of the product of industry as possible; in other words, that joint action may be an aid to securing conditions really permitted by the general productivity of a country, but not established until forced by events. On this possibility, also, generalisation is of practically no value. The result may be economically sound or unsound according to circumstances. In one direction, however, it has considerable importance. Economic history tends to show that when the conditions of labour within a country are extremely poor, they tend to perpetuate themselves. This may be traced to a number of causes — the force of tradition, the weak bargaining power of extremely poorly paid workers, the deterioration of strength and character, the tendency towards poor management of a cheap labour supply, the extent of family labour, and the high birth rate characteristic of poorly paid industrial wage-earning groups. Joint action seeking to create a world-wide minimum standard of conditions may act as a counter force

and be the beginning of an effort to overcome the self-perpetuating situation. This result is not by any means assured — but it is among the possibilities. The necessary increase in human effort and co-operation may or may not be forthcoming under compulsion. The size of the population may or may not continue to grow at so rapid a rate compared with natural resources as to defeat all effort at improvement — huge masses seeking work at any price, and habitual economic misery such as exists in the Oriental countries. But international action is one of the few available means of stimulating the effort. The main body of economic theory does not contemplate it, does not recognise it as among the basic influences which may determine standards of work and living in the long run; on the other hand, it does not completely reject the possibility.

IV

Some further possible consequences of international labour legislation are revealed by considering the position in which countries possessing at present different standards of labour conditions find themselves placed in the face of international action designed to establish a universal minimum standard.

The position of countries in which the conditions of labour are already better than elsewhere is a simple one (at least as regards those particular questions in which this established superiority is clear and permanent). They anticipate a protection of their relative position in international competition. They should tend, furthermore, to become the promoters of an international interest — real or presumed. That international interest is based on a humane, semi-ethical judgement that there is a standard of working conditions and welfare which is necessary in the modern world for the proper development of human character and satisfaction of basic human wants; it is defended by the conviction that wherever such a standard has been attained it should be protected, and that where it has not been attained it should be developed. This judgment as to international interest therefore holds that those countries which have attained higher standards should not be compelled to sacrifice them to a competition which is effective merely because it is based on very poorly paid labour working under very poor conditions — as has already been stated, this result could only be temporary, but nevertheless serious. It asserts that countries where standards are poor should carry

the burden of improving them before they enter into international competition, that industries and industrial activity should not be permitted to migrate to places where conditions are poorest. Naturally this reasoning tends to be congenial to trade union organisations throughout the world.

In support of this judgement the parallel of national legislation, creating minimum standard conditions throughout the whole of a national territory, is often cited. But this parallel has little force. For within any one country there are neither customs barriers nor immigration restrictions, and there is a much freer movement of goods, capital, and labour than between countries. All parts of a country may therefore be required to meet a minimum standard with less fear of economic suffering or less chance of injustice than in the case of international action. And, on the contrary, the existence of tariff and immigration laws greatly weakens the moral argument for the international observance of minimum standards. It weakens the moral duty imposed upon the countries where conditions are poorest to meet some world standard since they enter into international competition. Our general reasoning indicates that these countries may sometimes risk an economic loss to themselves if they do participate in joint action. On the other hand, such joint action may act as a moral, social, and technical spur to these countries, helping them to improve their conditions of labour.

The difficulties facing those countries which, in order to participate in any joint effort, are called upon to modify their standards (as embodied in legislation) more than other countries, are apt to be genuine and serious. Great and permanent improvement of conditions must mainly rest upon an improvement of industrial effectiveness. The need of paying for purchases made abroad will constantly defeat the effort to improve labour conditions beyond the levels permitted by this industrial effectiveness — difficult as these may be to determine in theory. Obviously, the disposition and ability of each of these countries to undertake such changes will be determined largely by the economic fortunes of the country — by whether their workmen are fully employed, industry growing in effectiveness, industrial leadership energetic and progressive, or the contrary, trade unionism strong or weak. We have observed the numberless combinations of causes, human and physical, circumstantial or immutable, which account for the lowness of their existing standards. An improvement of these standards may sometimes be undertaken with relatively little

fear if the facts be correctly judged; the economic position may be prepared for it or easily improved by determination and industry. At other times such countries may face well-nigh unconquerable obstacles to the successful maintenance of higher standards, to the attempt to approach the better conditions prevailing in other countries; any effort may be doomed to failure by causing unemployment, by non-observance of enacted legislation, by worsening the lot of some groups of wage earners in the effort to improve that of others. The economic limits are ever present and important; a loss not only to these countries but to the countries which sell to them will result from attempts to ignore them.

It is not necessary to go over again the grounds on which the opinion is based that the effort to improve conditions should be made whenever a reasonable chance of successful achievement exists — the possibilities of making industry more effective or increasing the share of the product going to the workers without doing corresponding economic harm elsewhere. These are important possibilities in this rapidly changing, complex economic world, in which we are all conscious of the fact that our technical knowledge and human talent is enough to make production so much more effective than it is at present. Yet they are often only vague and frequently turn out to be visionary. Still, it is within the domain of these possibilities that the hopes of those lie who believe it possible gradually to create by international action a general minimum standard of conditions, good enough to satisfy to some extent the aspirations embodied in Part XIII of the Peace Treaty — even in countries where conditions are now poorest. The economic limitations are to be tested. Because of them the work of the International Labour Organisation must become an educative, conciliatory influence, adding to practical knowledge, moulding human attitudes and relations — if the Organisation hopes to make any progress in its aims. If it turns into a mechanical Convention-dragging agency it will be dead.

V

In the existence of economic obstacles, in fact, is to be found a great part of the explanation of some features of the agreements formulated by the International Labour Organisation up to the present. The States Members, even if their action is not made cautious by the caution of the employers, even if the will exists to participate in international action dealing with labour conditions,

must feel their way slowly about the economic difficulties they may face. Gathered together in conference the representatives of governments, workers, and employers of each country always find that they have numerous courses of action open to them, each course of action shading into the next by small degrees. The time of the Conference is spent chiefly in trying to decide which course of action shall be undertaken. It is possible to indicate only a few of the broader types of possibilities. The Conference majority of two-thirds may endorse terms which represent conditions better than those prevailing even in the countries where economic effort is most effective — terms designed to satisfy social ideals at once ; if that is done it is very likely that the resulting agreement will secure extremely few ratifications and have no effect. Or the terms embodied in the Draft Convention may represent some improvement over existing conditions in countries where they are poorest, but not mark any improvement in most countries ; in which case the process of ratification will probably move smoothly in most countries, but the conditions established still fall below the minimum expectations of the workers in the more industrially effective countries. Or the Conference may after many meetings contrive to find a compromise between these two types of agreement — a constant compromise of detail, which should mark, if put into force, some improvement of conditions in almost all countries, yet not be such as to exclude completely the ratifications of countries where existing conditions approach the poorer levels. Such is usually the course pursued. Most of the draft agreements formulated by the Conference propose some improvement of existing conditions in most countries, perhaps even in all countries — still, only a small improvement ; most of them also, as we shall see, leave the way open for exceptions and hold over the hope of agreement upon many points where the difference of economic conditions in different countries proves too great an obstacle. These agreements are almost always opposed with determination by the employers' representatives, and supported by the workers' representatives as being much below their wishes but the best immediately attainable. These opposed views find expression in opposite theories of the aims of the Conference. This process of compromise may be regarded as exploratory manœuvres carried on within the area of uncertainties left by economic observations. They are the push and tug of opposed interests and hopes, of caution and of boldness.

VI

If the preceding examination of the economic problems brought up by international action dealing with labour agreement, and of the methods by which the attempt to reach agreement is carried out, is correct, it is plain that the establishment of a uniform standard of conditions is unattainable; or rather, it is plain that the only uniform standard that might be attainable would have to be within reach of those countries where the level of production is extremely low, and such standards will never find embodiment in international agreements. It may be asked, therefore, whether the attainment of uniformity is essential to the achievement of the aims of international action, and whether that is the only just basis of agreement. A natural assumption to that effect is often made in conference discussion. There would seem to be no sound economic or ethical basis for that opinion. The economic results of such a policy have already been discussed; and (since national barriers such as tariff and immigration laws are enforced, and as long as it is generally held that a country's economic policy should be based first of all on national interests irrespective of international effects) only an extremely weak ethical duty can be assigned to those countries where the standards are lowest, except the duty of these countries towards their own workers.

Economic analysis reveals no essential need for uniformity: nor will the absence of uniformity in itself defeat the aims of joint action. Even if uniformity of minimum standards were attained, the difficult situations sometimes created by international competition would not necessarily be less than they would otherwise be. What is needed, and what may not be out of the range of achievement, is, first, a tendency towards general improvement, a tendency on the part of each country to improve conditions of labour as much as its industrial effectiveness may permit; secondly, substantial equality and stability of minimum conditions as between countries where the levels of industrial effectiveness are substantially equal; and thirdly, the gradual pressure on States where conditions are poorest to approach the standards existing elsewhere, so that industrial activity may not gradually shift into the areas where conditions are worst. In some such moderate policy as this lies the hope of avoiding some of the worst effects of international competition, while preserving most of its gains.

VII

If it were possible, it would be illuminating to study the history of the action of the States Members of the International Labour Organisation in regard to the projects for agreement which have been before the annual meetings of the Conference, and the Conventions and Recommendations adopted by the Conference. That study would throw light upon the economic calculations of each State, and reveal clearly how the effort has been made by each State to participate in joint action for the improvement of labour conditions and yet to avoid the economic difficulties. It would show why and where the effort has been made to limit or stabilise the force of international competition, and how difficult and even inadvisable that is in many circumstances. But that would be a task of difficulty and endless complexity. Only one phase of it can be attempted now. It is possible to trace out roughly and generally the way in which the States Members have tried, in framing their agreements, to find terms of agreement which represent some improvement of conditions in many countries and some modification of the rigour of international competition, within the limitations of economic facts and frequently conflicting national interests. That study shows that the rule of uniformity of conditions has been found partially applicable, especially as between the chief competing countries in Europe, and that, on the other hand, other rules and arrangements have been substituted for it in many instances[1].

In the third paragraph of Article 405 of Part XIII of the Peace Treaty, the following paragraph is to be found :

> In framing any recommendation or draft convention of general application the Conference shall have due regard to those countries in which climatic conditions, the imperfect development of industrial organisation, or other special circumstances make the industrial conditions substantially different, and shall suggest the modifications, if any, which it considers may be required to meet the case of such countries.

Article 421 of the same Part of the Treaty reads as follows :

> The Members engage to apply conventions which they have ratified in accordance with the provisions of this Part of the present Treaty

[1] A useful distinction may perhaps be drawn between matters of principle (e.g. freedom of association, existence of social insurance plans) and matters of direct economic measurement and actual standards (e.g. hours of work). The principle may be universally applicable, the standard not so — but the reverse is also possible. I owe this distinction to J. R. Richardson of the International Labour Office.

to their colonies, protectorates and possessions which are not fully self-governing :

(1) Except where owing to the local conditions the convention is inapplicable, or

(2) Subject to such modifications as may be necessary to adapt the convention to local conditions.

Article 427 of Part XIII may also be quoted in this connection :

The High Contracting Parties, recognising that the well-being, physical, moral and intellectual, of industrial wage earners is of supreme international importance, have framed, in order to further this great end, the permanent machinery provided for in Section I, and associated with that of the League of Nations.

They recognise that differences of climate, habits and customs, of economic opportunity and industrial tradition, make strict uniformity in the conditions of labour difficult of immediate attainment. But, holding as they do that labour should not be regarded merely as an article of commerce, they think that there are methods and principles for regulating labour conditions which all industrial communities should endeavour to apply, so far as their specal circumstances will permit.

In these texts there appears adequate constitutional recognition of the fact that uniform conditions may in many cases be inadvisable and impossible of attainment. To learn what has actually happened it is necessary to enquire what process has taken place under these constitutional texts.

First, as has been stated, serious controversy has arisen at each Session of the Conference over the precise standard of conditions to be embodied in the proposed agreement under discussion. It was to be expected that it would often be debated whether the conditions provided should be actually or very nearly within immediate attainment on the part of countries having comparatively poor conditions, or so decidedly above existing conditions in those countries as to make their acceptance and enforcement a considerable risk and strain, though still below the conditions prevailing in the countries of greater industrial effectiveness. The decision in many instances runs in the latter direction. But in many instances, also, the controversy has concerned itself rather with the question whether the conditions prescribed should not mark an improvement over existing conditions even in the countries of comparatively high existing conditions, such as those of Western Europe. That is due to the comparatively great strength and prestige of the trade union movements in those countries. These trade unions have been most reluctant to see standards embodied in Conventions that did not mark decided improvement over the conditions under which they,

themselves, were working. These trade union movements have held the hope of procuring the ratification of their own countries, even though the countries where existing conditions were comparatively low could not be expected to ratify. In short, the labour representatives of the various countries have not often been afraid of tipping the balance of international competition against themselves. This attitude is based partly on the deeply held trade union conviction that it is virtually always possible for workers to receive a larger share of the product than they are actually receiving without doing economic harm. In short, labour representatives have wanted the Conventions to be of assistance to them in their distributive contest, and have been willing to rest on the hope that similar improvements of industrial conditions in other countries would keep the international competitive position unchanged. The economic hazards of realising this programme have already been discussed. The employers' representatives of each country have usually taken a position of opposition to the labour demands and views, and have tended to seek conditions relatively easy of establishment which also might improve their competitive position. Sometimes they have supported a small measure of improvement, sometimes declared that economic difficulties made any improvement impossible.

A tendency towards group feeling and co-operation within the Conference has probably led the employers' representatives of some countries to oppose terms which might not have caused any serious additional production expense to them, but might have that effect in other countries. Behind such action lies the hope of reciprocal support. The same tendency to group support and bargaining exists among the workers' representatives. The result of the whole process is compromise under influence of the government representatives, sometimes on terms little or no better than the existing situation in many Member States, sometimes better than those in most or all Member States. To try to describe fully and accurately the level reached would require an immense detailed investigation. Seldom or never have the terms of agreement passed by the Conference majority (two-thirds) been pitched down to the lowest range of those existing. But no guarantee of ratifications exists, of course, and the process of ratification in many instances has made difficult progress.

Certain other features of the agreements reached by the Conference require consideration as part of the same subject. In the case of several important Conventions a special standard

lower than the main standard is provided for countries which could not possibly reach the main standard. The debates of the Conference show that this arrangement was made only with reluctance. An instance of such special provisions is to be found in the Hours of Work Convention of 1919, wherein a special regime different from the general one of the Convention is specified for Japan and British India, and it is furthermore provided that " The provisions of this Convention shall not apply to China, Persia and Siam, but provisions limiting the hours of work in these countries shall be considered at a future meeting of the General Conference. " Special provisions of a similar character to that of the illustration just given are to be found in the Conventions concerning the employment of women during the night, the minimum age for admission of children to industrial employment, the night work of young persons employed in industry, and the minimum age for the admission of young persons to employment as trimmers and stokers.

All the differences of regime specified in the Conventions up to the present apply only as between certain countries of the Far East and the other Member States. The general idea that all the other Member States must and can prove themselves capable of having minimum conditions equal to those of the Conventions, has prevailed. Smaller differences were involved. Still, the attainment and enforcement of the general terms of these Conventions will mean a different measure of change in different countries. A real economic problem may be involved with the possibility of genuine economic loss ; it will be solved only if and as the countries with the relatively poor conditions improve their productive effectiveness.

The specification of exceptional terms for certain countries is not the only way in which heed has been taken of the differences in economic position which form an obstacle to uniformity. The Conference under its constitutional powers is authorised to embody its agreements in either of two forms or instruments, for submission to the judgement of the competent authorities of the States Members. These two forms are known as Conventions and Recommendations. Conventions, once ratified, are strict documents : a ratifying country gives a pledge that its national law will be brought into conformity with the terms of the Convention and so maintained for the period of the Convention. Recommendations, on the contrary, never become international treaties, and do not require that States give any international pledge. Each State Member is under the same

obligation to submit Recommendations to the competent authority for such action as that authority may decide to take, as in the case of Conventions. But no international obligation is assumed. Each country may carry out the terms of a Recommendation piecemeal and partially rather than completely, and remains legally free to change its legislation as and when it pleases. Furthermore, the terms of a Recommendation are usually drawn very broadly, and leave open a broad field of discretion as to the standard to be established, in contrast to the main principle of a Convention. The Conference has put its agreements in the form of Recommendations when dealing with matters in which joint action is necessary, but in which (*a*) the obstacles to uniformity of standards are so great as to make even near approach to uniformity unrealisable; (*b*) the alternative means of carrying out a given purpose are numerous and traditionally different in different countries; for example, as regards the organisation of factory inspection. Because of the characteristics of Recommendations, this form of agreement raises far less serious economic problems than do Conventions. But they are a very weak form of joint action, amounting at most to a moral stimulus to action, and at worst to a pious wish. For they offer no such guarantee and security as is found by States Members in the relative precision and irrevocability of Conventions.

It is important to observe, however, that even in the Conventions it has often been found necessary to avoid the insertion of precise and rigid terms on many points if any real hope of ratification was to be entertained. On various points of the matters covered by the Conventions, no precise standard is defined within the Conventions. The method used is to provide that the conditions to be established as regards the point in question are to be decided in accordance with national legislation. This procedure was followed, for example, in the matter of determining the rates of compensation for industrial accidents and occupational diseases. This leaves the way open for States Members to ratify the Convention, though the conditions established in some respects or parts may differ from those maintained in other countries. It leaves these points to be decided by each country. Or in other words, when this formula is used, the States Members of the Conference virtually agree to disagree.

Lastly, it should be observed that up to the present no attempt has been made to secure international action dealing with wages. It has been tacitly recognised that the differences between the

productive effectiveness and economic condition of the States Members, and the complexity of the subject, make it impossible to formulate internationally any general level — not even a low minimum. For these same reasons any future agreement reached will have to be in very general terms and weak form ; for example, a recommendation to States Members to establish machinery to determine minimum wages for the poorest paid occupations.

These have been the main methods by which, up to the present, economic difficulties have been reckoned with in the effort to reach international agreements, by which the attempt is being made to limit the possible downward pressure of international competition without sacrificing its advantages. To try to measure the success of this effort is beyond the scope of this paper.

VIII

The preceding analysis does not lead to many clear-cut conclusions. But a few tentative and general ones may be drawn.

(1) The conclusion of economic theory, that the main effect of international competition is beneficial to all countries affected by it, is sound. Its main constantly working effect is to increase the income of all countries participating in it.

(2) The general doctrine does not give proper weight to certain effects of international competition which may be destructive and serious. These arise from the fact that the basic assumptions of economic theory do not always correspond closely to some of the existing facts of economic life. Many of those industries which are most subject to international competition operate on an immense scale, have great fixed plants, and employ up to hundreds of thousands of workers who can find employment in other directions only with difficulty and when the country is in a state of industrial activity or expansion. Hence shifts in the competitive situation of different countries may produce serious depression in labour conditions, particularly in the export industries, below the standards supportable by the productivity of some or all of these countries. These effects may be of considerable duration, and indirectly may prove a serious set-back of the whole industrial situation within a country.

(3) Such agreements may be a means of securing important economic gains for all concerned :

(*a*) They may prevent a depression of working conditions and

industrial disorganisation, especially in the export industries, from being produced by temporary circumstances and fluctuations in one country.

(*b*) They may prevent such depression of standards resulting from the fact that in one or several countries particular grades of labour are " sweated ", taking into account the level of industrial effectiveness within these countries.

(*c*) They may prevent a drift of industry to those places where labour conditions are poorest, at the cost of great readjustments in those countries where they are better; they may lead to the establishment of certain minimum required standards in the creation of future industrial communities.

(4) On the other hand, such agreements may entail certain economic losses:

(*a*) By hindering certain basic changes in the conditions of competition between countries from working themselves out, they may produce higher prices than would otherwise prevail.

(*b*) They may make it more difficult for countries where conditions are poorest to advance industrially.

(*c*) The welfare of particular groups of workers and capitalists in industries in particular countries may be adversely affected by the lack of freedom to revise standards downwards so as to meet either temporary or permanent changes in their competitive situation.

(5) The soundness of international labour legislation cannot be judged solely by weighing the preceding possibilities of loss and gain. Some broader considerations must also be taken into account:

(*a*) The fact that there often is a genuine possibility of increasing industrial effectiveness within a country by determination, intelligence, and common effort is a sound basis for the opinion that countries have a duty to co-operate in international action in this field; it also is the basis for the further opinion that a particularly serious duty rests on those countries where conditions are unusually low to approach the more general standard.

(*b*) If in any country the product of industry is being shared out so that the workers are not receiving in the way of income or conditions approximately as large a part of the product as might be paid to them without doing injustice to the other participants, and without reducing future production by discouraging investment and business leadership, this tends to produce a similar result in

other countries because of its effect upon comparative costs. Bargaining weakness may produce this result; international action might overcome it without a shift in the competitive conditions.

(c) The inability or unwillingness of some countries to improve labour conditions may act as a drag upon the efforts at improvement in other countries — as indicated in the preceding headings. This check can only be temporary, but is, nevertheless, of consequence.

Certain further pertinent conclusions indicated in the preceding analysis may also be summarised here.

(6) Substantial uniformity of labour conditions, even as a legal minimum, is never to be expected. Nor is there any economic reason for believing that a condition of uniformity established by legislation will result in the greatest total economic good for all countries concerned, or avoid, to the greatest possible extent, economic misery.

(7) It is in the essential nature of the aims of the International Labour Organisation that it will for ever be faced with intricate conflicts of interests between workers and employers, and between different countries. It can do little more than achieve a delicate and constantly renewed balance of these interests on changing grounds, a reconciliation of them on the basis of some improvement of labour conditions wherever the economic circumstances make improvement possible.

(8) Substantial and permanent progress towards the aims of the International Labour Organisation must come through uniting workers and employers in a common duty, in the determination to make improvement of conditions possible by making industry more productive. Its work must be, in that sense, primarily educational.

The Austrian Works Councils Act in Practice : II

by

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In the first part of this article (which appeared in the March number of the Review[1]*) the author gave an account of the various opinions expressed as to the effect and value of the Austrian works councils after some years' experience of their working, and a survey of the decisions of the Conciliation Boards on various disputes and divergent interpretations of the Act, which were submitted to them for settlement as provided by the Act. The remainder of the article, given below, continues this survey, and deals with the two most important divergences of opinion between employers and employed as to the interpretation of the Act, namely, the works council's right to object to the dismissal of a worker or employee and the immunity of the members of the works council.*

Objections to Dismissal

(*a*) Under section 3 (9) of the Act the works council may object to a worker or employee being dismissed for political reasons or in connection with his activity as a member of the works council, or on account of his having made use of the right of association or coalition. The objection must be addressed to the Conciliation Board within eight days; if the Board considers that the grounds for the objection are sufficient, the dismissal is invalid. In works where less than 20 persons are employed, so that there are representatives instead of a works council, the representatives have this right of objection.

The Act assigns the right of objection only to the works council (or representatives), not to the dismissed worker himself. The reason is presumably that the works council is in a position to examine the situation more impartially than the person concerned,

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[1] *International Labour Review*, Vol. XV, No. 3, March 1927, pp. 364-378.

and that in principle the works council is entrusted with the duty of watching over the interests of the workers and employees in the undertaking. If therefore the works council refuses to make an objection, it is indisputable that the person concerned cannot himself take any steps in the matter. Attempts in this direction have indeed not been lacking, but they were rejected by the Conciliation Boards (Decisions No. 2,959 and No. 2,988), and have not since been repeated. The Central Conciliation Board is also of opinion (Decision No. 3,160) that the Act gives no grounds for holding that the right of objection, if not made use of by the works council, passes to the person affected. Further points on which explicit declarations of the Conciliation Boards have been necessary are that the right of objection is granted only to the works council as such, and not to individual members, nor to the trade union.

Less obvious cases are when a works council has not yet been elected, and when the works is so small that neither works council nor representatives have to be elected. For the former case the Central Conciliation Board has expressed the opinion (Decision No. 3,053) that the person concerned can himself raise an objection to his dismissal. The argument put forward by the Board is that the Act presumes that a works council is already in existence: if this is not so, it is impossible to hold that the Act intends to leave the worker devoid of all protection, for the material content of this provision is of equal or even greater importance for the period in which a works council does not yet exist and one has to be elected. There is thus a hiatus in the Act, and the most reasonable way of bridging it is by transferring to the worker or employee concerned the works council's right of objection, so long as there is no works council. But when the Central Conciliation Board further adduces the German practice in support of its thesis, it is clearly in the wrong, for under the German Works Councils Act the protest against dismissal is really initiated by the dismissed worker's appealing to the works council, while in the Austrian Act there is no question of any such action on his part.

In the second case also, when less than 5 persons are employed in the works, it has been maintained by the Klagenfurt Conciliation Board (Decision No. 3,314) that the person concerned can himself lodge the objection to his dismissal. In the reasons for the decision stress is laid on the absence from the Act of any provision for protection in accordance with section 3 (9) in a case of this kind.

To refuse all protection to persons employed in such works would be unfair and irreconcilable with the spirit of the Act; the person concerned must therefore in such works be entitled to protect himself against any infringement of the right of coalition. This decision is obviously wrong; the Act makes no provision for this case, because it is entirely inapplicable to such works, and a single rule taken from the Act is not therefore applicable in them by mere analogy. The Act has only indirect effects on labour law, namely, through the intervention of the works councils or representatives, and so far as it prescribes neither of these institutions for a works none of its clauses can have any force for the persons employed in the works.

The standpoint of the Central Conciliation Board and the Klagenfurt Board would in addition lead to the result that in the cases considered the position of a dismissed worker or employee would be more favourable than in works with a works council or representatives. For in the latter case the objection after all depends upon whether the works council or representatives decide to oppose the dismissal, and they may refuse to do so; while if the worker or employee were given the right to object he would have a completely free hand to decide whether he will do so or not. The opinion of the Central Conciliation Board has not been followed up; on the contrary, the Graz Conciliation Board, in a decision of 1924, has declared that when there is no works council in the works the dismissed worker or employee has no right to raise an objection to his dismissal.

The question whether the works council is obliged to raise the objection, or whether it can use its discretion in the matter, has been given different answers by the Conciliation Boards. It will be examined below in another connection.

(*b*) The grounds on which objection may be raised are enumerated in the Act; the list is exhaustive, and no other grounds are allowable. The Austrian Act thus differs from the German in not allowing a protest if dismissal takes place without any statement as to the reason for it, or if it appears to be unjust and involves hardship not caused by the behaviour of the employee or the condition of the undertaking (the latter reason is also admitted by the Czechoslovakian Works Councils Act). It is for the works council to prove that there is ground for the objection, i.e. that the reason for the dismissal was one of those enumerated in the Act (Decision No. 3,404). It is also necessary that the decisive reason for the dismissal should be one of the reasons in the Act;

there is therefore no ground for objection if the dismissal takes place on account of one of the important reasons recognised by the law as justifying dismissal without notice (Decision No. 3,404).

Among the reasons justifying objection, dismissal for political reasons is of very slight importance, a surprising fact in view of the divergent political views held by the workers. It is presumably to be explained by the circumstance that in Austria the trade unions have a political bias, while the employers as a whole take a much smaller interest in the question of what political party their workpeople belong to, the more so as the great majority are Social Democrats. The grounds for dismissal are political if the reason given is that the worker belonged to or worked for a political party, or anything of the same kind (Decision No. 3,255). This ground for objection is mentioned in a Decision (No. 3,075) of the St. Pölten Conciliation Board. The case in point was a demand made by the workers for the dismissal of a worker on political grounds, which the employer complied with after some delay; the grounds for the objection were therefore declared sufficient.

In no Decision has the ground for the objection been that the dismissal was in connection with the activities of the dismissed worker or employee as member of the works council. But in principle this ground for objection is of great importance, because it completes the protection granted to the members of the council by section 14. This protection is intended only to safeguard the members of the council during their term of office, while section 3 (9) gives the same safeguard after their mandate has expired, an ex-member of the council being in fact protected if he is dismissed for his past activities as member of the council.

Interference with the right of association has been invoked in only a few isolated cases. Decision No. 3,336 deals with one of these. A Mrs. M. had been dismissed because she refused to yield to the pressure of the other workers who wanted her to join the tailors' union. In other words, she had made use of the right of association, i.e. the right to decide freely whether she would join an association or not. Whether the union in question was Social-Democratic or not did not affect the decision. The kind of case that would ordinarily perhaps come under this heading would be dismissal because the dismissed worker or employee belonged to or had founded a specified association, or perhaps had carried on propaganda for one. But apart from the fact that as a rule this would at the same time be a political reason, in practice trade associations would be the only kind of association concerned, and

these come under the right of coalition — a distinct question and one of great importance among the grounds for objection.

The grounds for the objection are sufficient if the worker or employee has been dismissed for having made use of the right of coalition. The term " right of coalition " (*Koalitionsrecht*) does not previously occur in Austrian law. The so-called " Coalition Act " (*Koalitionsgesetz*) of 7 April 1870 merely provides that the " agreements " (*Verabredungen*) of workers to try to secure higher wages or other working conditions by means of strikes or otherwise shall no longer expose the parties to legal penalties, and declares that such orders have no legal force, and that the workers are therefore not legally bound by them. Since the date of this Act the right of coalition has not been further defined in Austria, and it therefore means merely the right of joining in a coalition at will. It is therefore an interference with this right if a worker or employee is dismissed because he has or has not joined in a specified coalition.

The efforts of the workers are at present directed towards widening the scope of this right ; in this they are often supported by the decisions of the Conciliation Boards. For instance, a worker belonging to a trade union which had concluded a collective agreement with the employers' association successfully invoked this agreement in support of a claim for overtime pay against the undertaking where he worked ; this was considered a use of the right of coalition (Decision No. 3,255). It should however be noted that later on the same Conciliation Board gave a Decision in the contrary sense (No. 3,461). This Decision states that the worker's right of coalition is the right of combining for common action and of acting in common in order to obtain more favourable working conditions ; a complaint about the payment of wages has nothing to do with the right of coalition if its aim is merely to recover wages procured by coalition in accordance with a collective agreement, for only *common* action is protected by the right of coalition. In this case there was no ground for maintaining that the reason for dismissal was that the procedure adopted was a coalition ; if, and only if, this had been established the objection would have had to be allowed. But as the ultimate cause of dismissal was the judicial enforcement of the claim, there was no interference with the dismissed worker's right of coalition.

The contrary opinion, however, was deliberately expressed by the Administrative Court in its Decision of 3 November 1926. In the view of the Court, the workers are making use of the right of

coalition if they appeal to agreements that are the result of negotiations by their organisations. If the workers have the right to combine to found an organisation, and if the violation of this right is a ground for objection, then this ground must also exist if the worker is prevented from making use of the collective agreement, which owes its existence solely to the organisation. If notice of dismissal is given because the workers refused to work overtime without the special remuneration provided in the collective agreement, it follows that the ground for objection specified in section 3 (9) does in fact exist.

Other cases of dismissal in which the right of coalition was successfully invoked in support of an objection included the following : a worker who at a meeting of the workers held in connection with wage negotiations with the employer, at which measures for securing better wage conditions were being considered, strongly opposed the wage agreement already concluded with the majority of the workers (Decision No. 3,229) ; a worker who asked the works council to intervene with the management of the factory on account of a change in his contract of service (Graz, 4 March 1922) ; and another who before his dismissal had been especially active in creating a workers' organisation in the works and in carrying out the arrangements for the election of the works council (Decision No. 3,202).

A far-reaching and at the same time admirable Decision (22 December 1925) was given by the St. Pölten Conciliation Board, allowing an objection in the following circumstances. A trade union had given notice to an undertaking of the termination of the existing collective agreement. Shortly afterwards the undertaking dismissed all its employees, all of whom belonged to the union. The works council objected to this dismissal, though it recognised the economic difficulties of the undertaking. The Conciliation Board allowed the objection, on the following grounds. It was to be noticed that the undertaking had dismissed all its *employees*, though there was no question of closing down and not a single *worker* had been dismissed. As this happened shortly after the denunciation of the collective agreement, and therefore in the train of a wage movement, a causal connection between the denunciation of the agreement and the dismissal of the employees must be presumed. The ground for the dismissal was thus not so much economic necessity, as rather that the employees had made use of their right of coalition. For even though the economic conditions might have justified the dismissal of some

of the employees, the fact that the employer dismissed them all showed that he wished to strike a blow against his organised employees, in order to meet new wage claims.

But the most important question is whether section 3 (9) authorises objections to the dismissal of a worker or employee for having taken part in a strike. There is tolerable agreement both in literature and in judicial practice (cf. Decisions Nos. 1,110, 2,145, 3,096, 3,172, 3,282, etc.) that in general workers and employees can be dismissed at once and without notice on account of a strike. The Innsbruck Conciliation Board alone holds the opposite view, stating (Decision No. 3,171) that if the trade union decides on a strike non-compliance with its decision may involve serious consequences of an economic nature for the worker concerned, such as individual boycott, exclusion from the union and loss of the benefits of membership; with the further danger of physical violence through forcible interference with his attempt to work instead of striking. The Board concludes that seemingly taking part in a strike is justifiable and dismissal is illegal. The same view has also been held in Germany in isolated cases. In an earlier Decision (29 September 1922) the same Board expressed the opinion that a general strike is to be considered an exercise of the right of coalition, and that dismissal of a worker for having taken part in the strike is to be regarded as punishment for having made use of the right of coalition.

We now come to the question whether objection can be raised to the dismissal, if not in itself illegal, of a worker or employee on strike. The only possible answer is affirmative if it is accepted that the reason for dismissal is that the dismissed worker or employee has made use of the right of coalition. This would be equivalent to recognising that the right of coalition implicitly contains a right to strike. This view has in fact been maintained by the chairman of a Conciliation Board, Dr. Schneider, in an interesting article in the *Gerichtszeitung*. He says that the strike undoubtedly forms a reason for dismissing a worker at once and without notice, but that such a dismissal can be objected to. His chief argument is that section 3 (9) mentions the right of coalition in addition to the right of association, although coalitions of workers are usually carried through in associations, so that the special insertion of the right of coalition must have some special meaning. He points out that the right of coalition has developed far beyond the purport of the Act of 1870, which merely provided that coalitions should no longer be punishable, and has now found

recognition in section 3 (9) as an especial right. There is as yet, indeed, no absolute right to strike, but the works council can object to a dismissal which is in itself legal, and so bring about its cancellation. But Schneider here makes the limitation that the objection will not be allowable if the demands aimed at by the strike are in conflict with the law or are clearly contrary to public policy.

This self-contradictory view, which recognises the dismissal of strikers as legal but at the same time allows the objection which makes the dismissal invalid, is conclusively refuted by Grünberg in the same periodical. He points out that the Coalition Act of 1870 must be taken as starting-point, and that there is nothing to show that the Works Councils Act intended to recognise the right to strike as part of the right of coalition. In his view the reason the Act mentions the right of coalition as well as the right of association is that a coalition of workers is a specific association of workers for specified aims, pursuing not the general aim of an association but those special aims which especially concern workers' organisations, namely, the improvement and raising of the economic position of the working classes. It may be added that finally there are also coalitions of only transitory duration, which need not take the form of an association, and which must none the less be assured the protection of section 3 (9).

This view, that objection to dismissal on account of a strike is not allowable, has the support of the majority of the decisions of the Conciliation Boards. In opposition to the Decision (No. 3,171) of the Innsbruck Conciliation Board cited above, to the effect that the right of declaring a strike, and therefore also the right of taking part in a strike, is derived from the right of coalition, the Conciliation Boards of Klagenfurt (Decision No. 3,096), Graz (No. 3,172), and Salzburg (No. 3,282) do not allow objections to the dismissal of a worker or employee for having taken part in a strike.

The first of these Decisions sets out the following arguments. If a worker or employee is dismissed for belonging to an association, this punishment can be opposed by the works council. In the case in question, however, the workers were dismissed not because they belonged to a political party or an association, but because after a general stoppage of work they did not respond to the summons to resume work. But even if the right to agree to strike is considered included in the workers' right of coalition, this does not modify the decision given in the case in point. For according

to the Coalition Act such agreements have no legal effect. No one is legally bound by them, therefore not the employer, who need give them no consideration. But if such agreements have no legal effect, they cannot either give the works council the right to object to the dismissal.

The Graz Conciliation Board supports its opinion by the following arguments. The reason for the dismissal was not that the dismissed worker belonged to an economic or political party, but that he persistently refused to work. This is not affected by the fact that for motives of solidarity he was unwilling to stand aloof from his fellow-workers. He voluntarily brought upon himself the consequences of breach of his contract and his dismissal was therefore justified.

Lastly, there is the argument of the Salzburg Conciliation Board. In its view, the strike is now without doubt a recognised weapon for the trade unions. But it is indisputable that the worker on strike is violating the contract of employment which is the bond between him and the employer, and therefore the recognition of the strike as a trade union weapon does not mean that the employer must be deprived of his right to use other weapons to protect himself against this one. Even if the workers have a good and inviolable right to combine in an association in order to obtain better conditions of labour, they have no right protected by law to try to extort better working conditions by a stoppage of work. The reason for the dismissal was not that the workers had joined a coalition, but that in order to achieve their aim they had chosen a weapon that conflicted with the contract of employment. The motives for beginning the strike were of no importance for the decision concerning the objection.

The next question to consider is whether the right of coalition is infringed when an employer dismisses one of his workers because the majority of the remainder have demanded this and he has acceded to their demand for the sake of peace. A negative answer was given by the Klagenfurt Conciliation Board (2 March 1921, Decision No. 2,988) in the following case. The employer in question employed over 500 workers, almost all of whom belonged to the Social-Democratic trade union. The others were repeatedly urged to join this organisation, but refused. The majority therefore resolved to drive the minority out of the works, and asked the employer to dismiss them. He refused at first, and only gave way when the workers threatened a strike and the forcible removal from the works of the unorganised minority. In view of these

facts, says the Decision, it can only be said that it was the Social-Democratic workers who violated the freedom of opinion and of coalition, and not the employer, who only wanted to ensure the carrying on of his works, the maintenance of peace and order in the works, and the prevention of acts of violence. That this indirectly violated the freedom of coalition of the dismissed workers was not in accordance with the wish of the employer, nor was such a result contemplated by him, and he could not therefore be held responsible for it. The protest, which in any case was not raised by the works council, had therefore to be rejected.

A different opinion was held in similar circumstances by the Vienna Conciliation Board (9 November 1923, Decision No. 3,336) in the case already referred to of a Mrs. M. who had been dismissed because she refused to yield to the pressure of the other workers and join the tailors' union. She had therefore made use of the right of association, i.e. the right to decide freely whether she would join an association or not. The question whether the union was Social-Democratic or not was not raised, as it would not have affected the Decision. But the Conciliation Board overlooked the fact that the employer had not dismissed Mrs. M. of his own free will. He had not attacked the right of association, but had dismissed the woman merely so as to be able to carry on his business in peace — an argument which the Klagenfurt Board has also appositely put forward. The only possible defendants would have been the workers who had caused Mrs. M.'s dismissal, from whom she might have claimed compensation for the injury she had suffered.

The question has quite recently been disputed whether the stipulation in a collective agreement, that the undertaking will engage only workers who belong to the contracting trade union, is valid, or whether it must be considered invalid as contrary to public policy. Closely allied to this is the question whether a works council which, under threat of a strike, demands the dismissal of workers engaged by the employer in violation of the agreement, or retained in employment in spite of their having left the trade union, is liable for damages to the workers who are dismissed as a result of this demand. The examination of this question would take us too far. Here it will suffice to note that the Supreme Court, in its Decision of 23 June 1926, has emphatically asserted this liability. The Vienna Conciliation Board, on the contrary, in its Decision of 25 September 1926, expressed the opinion that the works council has only carried out its duty of seeing that the collective

agreement is observed (section 3 (1)), and if sued in such a case cannot be held responsible for the dismissal; and that further, the threat of a strike is not a breach of duty, as the strike is not a forbidden weapon.

(*c*) If the Conciliation Board considers that the grounds for the objection are sufficient, the dismissal is invalid. In other words (cf. Linz Conciliation Board, Decision No. 3,220), the dismissed worker or employee is to be treated as if he had never been dismissed; he is therefore still in the employment of the undertaking, and has been so uninterruptedly. He can even demand his wages for the period after his dismissal during which he was ready to work but was not allowed to do so by the employer. This explains why the Act fixes such strict time-limits for the objection, which must be addressed to the Conciliation Board within eight days from the date of dismissal. With the rapid procedure of the Boards it must thus be decided comparatively quickly whether the dismissal is valid, or whether it is invalid, so that the worker or employee must continue to be treated as belonging to the works. This clear intention of the Act is contravened by the attitude of the Administrative Court, which asserts that it is competent to decide complaints against a decision of a Conciliation Board; this prolongs the uncertainty for months, and enormously increases the damage to the undertaking if the ultimate decision goes against it. In one case (Decision No. 3,409), for instance, the decision of the Administrative Court was given five and a half months after that of the Conciliation Board.

(*d*) The next point to consider is whether the dismissed worker or employee has any claim upon the works council for an objection to his dismissal. The Vienna Conciliation Board (9 November 1923, Decision No. 3,336) answers this question in the affirmative. The Board considers that the objection is not left to the arbitrary decision of the works council, but that it is rather the duty of the council to object to a dismissal if the reasons for it are such that an objection is allowable; for in the introduction to section 3 the Act states that the matters there enumerated " come within the sphere of [the] rights and *duties* " of the works council. Some time before (18 August 1920, Decision No. 2,959) the Salzburg Conciliation Board had rejected this thesis on the ground of the wording of section 3 (9) (" The works council *may* object . . . "); this view has also been maintained by the Vienna Conciliation Board in a Decision of 25 September 1926, as well as by the Central Conciliation Board (24 April 1923, Decision No. 3,160) on

the ground that it is left to the discretion of the works council to decide in each individual case whether it will use its right of objection or not; for the Act has only given the works council a right, but has not also imposed on it a duty.

The question is of importance for this reason, that if the works council neglects its duty and fails to lodge an objection, the dismissed worker can claim damages from the council if the duty of objecting is admitted. The question of the works council's liability for damages will be considered in more detail below.

Immunity of Members of the Works Council

The carrying out of the tasks of the works council easily brings the members of the council into opposition with the employer. This will be the more violent according as the employer is less inclined to consider the rights and interests of his workers and employees and as the works council takes a more lively concern in them, as it is in duty bound to do. There is then an obvious temptation for the employer to get rid of these members of the works council as quickly as possible, so at the same time intimidating future members of the council. If then the works council is specially assiduous in carrying out its duties, regardless of possible serious personal consequences, it must be protected against such consequences. This protection is provided by section 14, which runs as follows:

(1) The employer shall not hinder his workers or employees in the exercise of their electoral rights in connection with the works council, nor in their activities as members of the works council or the election committee, and shall not place them under any disadvantage on this account. A member of the works council shall not be dismissed unless he is guilty of an offence which justifies his dismissal under the existing law. He shall not be given notice or dismissed for other reasons except with the consent of the Conciliation Board.

(2) Agreements contrary to these regulations shall be null and void.

It is provided that infringements of these regulations, which hold also for representatives, shall be punished by fine or by imprisonment.

Complaints of interference with elections are almost unknown. Such cases would expose the employer to the penalties provided in the Act, as would also hindering the election committee or

the works council in carrying out their tasks. In the latter case there is no question of these penalties if well-founded differences of opinion exist as to the functions of the works council, even if finally the employer's standpoint is not accepted as correct. There is in any case no record of any penalties having been imposed for hindering the works council. A worker or employee who has been an active member of a works council or election committee can be " placed under a disadvantage " by the employer's dismissing such troublesome people ; but the dismissal can be objected to under section 3 (9). For other kinds of injury — e.g. transfer to a badly paid post — the injured worker or employee can in any case claim compensation under section 14 (Decisions Nos. 3,516, 3,481, 3,483). But the special importance of section 14 is that it requires as a general rule the consent of the Conciliation Board before a member of a works council can be dismissed, which is a particularly effective safeguard.

In practice a whole series of questions arise in this connection.

(*a*) Who has a right to this protection ? According to the Act, in any case the members of the works council and the representatives, as soon as they have been elected and for their whole term of office. The employer and the Conciliation Board have to be informed of the result of the election of the works council, but its validity is not dependent on the notification to the Conciliation Board (Decision No. 3,165), nor on the notification to the employer (Decision No. 3,067), nor is recognition of the newly elected works council by the employer necessary if the notification is omitted (Decision No. 3,107). After the expiration of the term of office the protection lasts until the new works council is elected, but only if this new election is arranged and carried out without delay (Decision No. 2,953 ; Graz, 25 September 1925). But if a member of the works council retires, he thereby loses the protection of section 14 (Decisions No. 3,120 and No. 3,165) and retains only that of section 3 (9), namely, objection to his dismissal because the reason for this is connected with his activity as member of the works council.

In particular, a candidate for election to the council does not enjoy this protection, as he is not yet a member of the council. His dismissal is therefore not limited by section 14 (Central Conciliation Board, Decision No. 3,053). It can in any case be objected to under section 3 (9) ; not however on the ground that the reason for it was connected with his activity as member of the works council, but only if from the circumstances it is to be pre-

sumed that the reason for dismissal was political or that the dismissed worker or employee has made use of the right of association or coalition. As a rule it will be the latter, as he must already have been proposed as candidate by a group of electors whose number is fixed in the rules for elections. It is of course presumed that there is a connection between the dismissal and the candidature.

There is heated discussion of the question whether the so-called " substitutes " (*Ersatzmänner*) for the works council enjoy the protection of section 14. These substitutes have no rights and duties as such; if a member retires his place is taken by a substitute, who then becomes a full member of the council, but until this happens a substitute has nothing but the prospect of some day becoming a member. The employer may quite possibly have an interest in preventing their appointment to the council, but the Act has not included them in the protection of section 14 — or rather, it does not recognise their existence, the first mention of them being in the Decree concerning the rules for elections. Although the Central Conciliation Board gave a Decision (No. 2,913) in this sense as early as 9 April 1920, the question recurs continually, but is always settled in the same sense (Wiener Neustadt, Decision No. 3,003; Graz, No. 3,201; Steyr, No. 3,299). In the last of these decisions, the result was not affected by the fact that the substitute — against the regulations — had attended the meetings of the works council as secretary, and had repeatedly negotiated with the employer on its behalf.

(*b*) The members of the works council can naturally not have unconditional security of tenure of their posts. But the Conciliation Board has to decide whether a given case is one of persecution of a member of a works council who has made himself objectionable (Decisions No. 2,991, No. 3,003, and No. 3,037). or whether there is sufficient reason for the dismissal.

The consent of the Board is not however necessary if a member of the works council is guilty of an offence which under the existing law justifies his immediate dismissal without notice. If this is so. the employer cannot be expected to keep him in his employment any longer. But there must be a genuine offence; protracted sickness, although under the law it justifies dismissal, has been declared not a sufficient reason, as there is no question of an offence in this case (Decisions No. 3,379, No. 3,441, and No. 3,487). If a dismissed member of the works council is of opinion that he has been wrongfully dismissed, he can appeal to the Conciliation

Board, which has then to take a decision, but only as to whether the reason for dismissal is allowable.

Some instances of reasons for dismissal recognised as justifiable are as follows: insulting the manager by accusing a member of the works council in the presence of several other workers of having taken bribes from the manager (Decision No. 3,049); grossly insulting the works supervisor (Decision No. 3,069); a cashier, for having paid several accounts submitted to him, though they had been clumsily faked, which could have been detected by exercising the slightest care (Decision No. 3,083); smoking repeatedly in a wood-working factory full of inflammable material, in spite of numerous notices forbidding it and of several serious warnings (Decisions No. 3,076 and No. 3,453); not carrying out the work assigned to him according to orders, absence from work (though ostensibly while carrying out his duties as member of the works council) without previous notification or subsequent excuse, and causing the machine operator to stop his machine during a meeting of the workers held during working hours without the employers' knowledge (Decision No. 3,233); an actor, for having planned a disturbance in the theatre against his employer (though he did not carry it out) which would have endangered the reputation and prosperity of the undertaking (Decision No. 3,212); declaring to a gathering of excited workers, against the speaker's own better knowledge, that only lack of good will prevented the management from granting a pressing demand of the workers, which the employer had declared impracticable for technical reasons (Decision No. 3,523). As to the question whether the fact of having taken part in a strike justifies the dismissal of a member of a works council, the Vienna Conciliation Board states (Decision No. 3,360) that this question cannot be answered on general principles, but only according to the circumstances of the individual case. In the case before the Board, it had to be considered that the member of the works council had not at once joined the strike, but had at first gone on working; he had stopped work only after consultation with the trade union and recognition by it of the strike, when there seemed good grounds for his fear of being labelled a strike-breaker for the rest of his life. In addition, the foreman himself, after the strike had begun, when he was still working, had told him that he (the foreman) would not like the members of the works council to act as strike-breakers. The Conciliation Board was therefore of opinion that the dismissal was not justified. The contrary view was expressed by the Vienna Conciliation Board

in a Decision of 5 December 1925, to the effect that dismissal on account of a strike is justified, no such distinction as that just referred to being made by the Board.

Absence from work of a member of the works council has been held insufficient reason for dismissal when it was caused by necessary activity as member of the council and had been notified to the employer (Decisions No. 2,975 and No. 3,041); in particular, when the absent member asked (and received) no wages for the time lost (Decision No. 3,031); when he was too weak to prevent a strike (St. Pölten, Decision of 17 August 1922); when the worker in question sued a works official who had insulted him (Decision No. 3,031); when in the exercise of his duty of watching over the interests of the workers in the undertaking he informed the employer of the discontent of the workers, and negotiated with the manager to check outbreaks of this discontent, even if he took the wrong tone about this (Decision No. 3,298).

Apart from such circumstances, which the Act itself recognises as special reasons for the immediate termination by the employer of the engagement, a member of a works council (or a representative) may not be dismissed without the consent of the Conciliation Board. The Board has to determine whether there is sufficient ground for believing that the employer has terminated the engagement with good reason, and whether some grudge against the works council or the wish to get rid of a troublesome member of the council was not either the only reason for his decision or essentially concordant with it. But, as the Vienna Conciliation Board has pointed out (Decision No. 3,360), the tendency of the Act is not to protect the member of a works council in respect of his own personal interests, but only to safeguard him against being punished for carrying out his duties in accordance with the law, in so far as this is not contrary to the interests of the undertaking — the promotion of which is after all the express aim of the Works Councils Act. It is here that the protection of the members of the council is most strongly enjoined; for this reason it is the duty of the Conciliation Board to refuse its consent to a dismissal if there is even a mere suspicion that it is connected with the fact of membership of the Council.

The following are reasons for dismissal to which consent was given: insufficient output (Decision No. 3,044); pulling down a notice to the workers posted up by the management (No. 2,960); taking repeated liberties in carrying out his mandate, such as walking about the factory offices noisily, and spreading rumours

that the management was to blame for an accident caused by an avalanche (No. 3,292); repeated meddling while carrying out the duties of the works council and neglect of ordinary duties (No. 3,066); injuring the employer's property, uttering threats against the manager, and coming to work too late, so losing the support of the Conciliation Board, the more so as his behaviour as representative should have been an example to the other workers who had placed him in that position (No. 3,071); lastly, inability to cope with the difficulties of the work of the council and lack of the requisite impartiality (No. 3,360), although faulty execution of the duties as member of the works council cannot after all serve as a reason for terminating the engagement, and it is for the electors alone to call the defaulting member to account.

Consent was, on the contrary, refused to dismissals in the following cases : when the reason given for dismissal was that the worker in question had joined an organisation (Decision No. 3,220); when the only reason for dismissal was the demand of the other workers that he should be dismissed for political reasons (No. 3,308); when important objective reasons for dismissal were not found to exist (Vienna, 12 October 1924); for refusal to carry out orders which the management had no right to give. The refusal of consent to the dismissal of a worker for having justifiably disagreed with the imposition on another worker of a penalty for breach of rules (Decision No. 3,385) is thoroughly sound and obvious. Another sound decision is No. 3,031. In this case, the Conciliation Board expressed its view that sucessful collaboration between the undertaking and R., the member of the works council whose dismissal was under consideration, was possible for the short remainder of the council's term of office, provided both sides, and therefore the management, brought good will to bear on the situation. Even if R. had several times transgressed the strict letter of the law, he had in any case done it not from ill will, but from idealistic motives and with the best intentions for the workers he represented. The Board therefore felt bound to refuse the employer its consent to a dismissal which would have been an aspersion on any member of a works council, but a still more severe blow for the idealistic R.

The question becomes especially difficult when the number employed is reduced and one or more members of the works council are among those to be dismissed. In such a case it will be very natural for the employer to try to get rid of any members of the works council whom he dislikes, while even if there is no

such suspicion the members of the council will try to keep their posts and maintain that their activities in connection with their office were the reason for their dismissal. The number of disputes on this question is large. An important factor is that even when a works is completely closed down the Conciliation Boards have declared (Decisions Nos. 2,963, 2,991, 3,140, 3,259, 3,298) that their consent to the dismissal of members of the works council is necessary — in opposition to the principle laid down in section 85 of the German Works Councils Act — although it would surely seem that if a works closes down altogether, the works council also comes to an end and the mandate of its members expires, though this is not explicitly stated in the Act.

The Conciliation Boards have therefore made the greater efforts to protect the members of the works council when only some of the workers are dismissed. Two tendencies can be distinguished.

First, there is the view that in such a case the members of the works council have the right to a specially favoured position. This is explicitly affirmed by Decision No. 3,036, stating that — except when there are legal grounds for immediate dismissal — the Works Councils Act gives the members of the council special protection with respect to their dismissal and a specially favoured position compared with the other workers, so that in case of total or partial closing down of the works they must be the last to be dismissed. So also Decision No. 3,095 argues that as undoubtedly the members of the works council have a special position compared with the other workers as regards dismissal, it would have been the duty of the undertaking first to offer the member of the council other work; only on his refusal of this work, with the consequent impossibility of employing him further in the works, would the undertaking have been justified in dismissing him. The same line is taken in Decisions No. 3,031, No. 3,146, and No. 3,148, and the Decisions of 17 February 1922 of the Klagenfurt Conciliation Board and of 16 October 1924 of the St. Pölten Board.

An isolated and quite erroneous decision is that of the St. Pölten Conciliation Board of 18 January 1926. In this case consent was refused to a dismissal on the ground that in view of the amount of business being done by the works the dismissal of one of the two office clerks was not necessary, as the wage calculations to be made by these clerks for a staff of 60 to 90 could hardly be managed by a single employee. But the decision whether the works

can get on with only one clerk must be left to the employer. The Conciliation Board has no right to interfere in the internal affairs and arrangements of the works, and it could use the line of argument set out above at most if it proposed (as does not seem to have been the case) to draw from it the conclusion that the manager had dismissed the clerk not for reasons of fact but merely in order to get rid of this particular member of the works council.

An intermediate view was taken by the St. Pölten Conciliation Board in the Decision of 16 October 1924. The Board here refused its consent to the dismissal of a member of the works council so long as there were younger and unmarried workers employed who could be dismissed first, and so long as it was still possible to employ the members of the works council, even on work other than they had hitherto done. Similarly Decision No. 2,915 refused the consent of the Board if the member of the council could be employed on work corresponding to his position without imposing a strain on the works, or if someone else would have to be engaged if he were dismissed (in the latter case there is obviously no question of reducing the number of persons employed); Decision No. 3,425 held that there was no reason for dismissing the particular member in question, especially as he had been employed in the undertaking for 25 years, on the employer's own evidence was an exceptionally steady and zealous employee, and had a wife and child to keep, while there were three unmarried employees with a relatively very short period of employment who would in any case be much less hardly hit by dismissal; and the Vienna Conciliation Board's Decision of 13 May 1924 is in the same sense. Lastly, Decision No. 3,143 may be mentioned, refusing consent to the dismissal of members of the works council because the number of workers was being only temporarily reduced.

But there are a whole series of other Decisions which take the contrary view to the first group mentioned above; the divergence would seem to be deliberate. These Decisions assert most emphatically that in case of the dismissal of part of the workers and employees in the undertaking the members of the works council as such are entitled to no preferential treatment of any kind, and have absolutely no claim not to be dismissed until last. Decision No. 3,003, for instance, argues that section 14 aims merely at preventing the dismissal of members of the works council who have fallen out of favour, and at instituting a certain safeguard by providing for the examination of such dismissals by the Conciliation Board; but that it does not say that the members of

the works council are to be the last to leave the ship, so that others would have to sacrifice their posts if by chance any members of the works council had the necessary knowledge to fill them. But if the protection of the Act went so far, the result would be an influx of less valuable elements into the council, which would be definitely injurious to the institution itself. Decisions in the same sense are Nos. 2,991, 3,037, 3,038, 3,039, and 3,043; Graz, 18 May 1922; St. Pölten, 6 May 1925; and Eisenstadt, 29 January 1925. The last of these makes effective use of the argument that the legal protection of section 14 is given to the members of the works council in the general interest of the workers and employees in the undertaking, and not as a personal privilege. Decision No. 3,058 of the Central Conciliation Board is conclusive on this point. In the opinion of the Board, a member of a works council has no claim to be excepted from the general scheme of dismissals when circumstances make it necessary to reduce the number of persons employed in the undertaking. But as section 14 provides not only that agreements contrary to its regulations shall be null and void, but also that infringements of these regulations shall be punished by fine or imprisonment, it must be concluded that it is the intention of the Act to make the position of the works council as permanent and as free from interference by the employer as possible. It follows that the question of the dismissal of members of the works council is not to be settled merely by the general arrangements for the reduction of the number of workers imposed by the circumstances of the undertaking at the moment; it is essential that there should be other special reasons, to be established by the Conciliation Board, from which it results that further employment in the undertaking of a member of the council, in either his previous or some other position, for which he is fitted and which he has declared his readiness to accept, even perhaps for lower pay, would be inconsistent with rational management of the undertaking.

The question how the members of the works council are to be treated in case of a lockout of all the workers is especially interesting. There can be no doubt as to the necessity of the consent of the Conciliation Board to their dismissal (Decision No. 3,419); but this consent will presumably have to be granted, unless the lockout is a quite transitory measure (Decision No. 3,143; St. Pölten, 1 June 1922). Decision No. 3,452 in this sense may be cited. Here the Board expressed the opinion that in the case before it the transitoriness or otherwise of the situation in the works was

of no importance whatever. A strike had been declared by a group of workers over a wage dispute, and threatened to make it impossible for the other workers in the undertaking to go on working. Under existing law the wages of the latter would none the less have to be paid. The only way in which the undertaking could protect itself from this was to dismiss the workers. The Board held that it was not its business to interfere in the dispute by preventing the employer from dismissing the members of the works council as well, if the other conditions imposed by the law were satisfied; especially as membership of the works council did not provide the members with a post guaranteed for a year or with a more favoured position than their colleagues, but was only intended to protect them from injury resulting from their mandate; and such injury was not proved by the evidence before the Board.

If a member of the works council is to be pensioned off, the protection of section 14 also holds good. This follows not from the letter but certainly from the sense of the Act, as in this case too the member in question is being removed from his employment (Decision No. 3,371).

A more difficult question is whether the transfer of a member of the works council from his previous post to another in the same undertaking falls under section 14. A Decision of the Central Conciliation Board already referred to (No. 3,358) states that the same principles hold for transfer as for dismissal, so that a member of a works council is not entitled to object to transfer. In several Decisions dating from 1922 the Vienna and Graz Conciliation Boards have however declared that transfers require the consent of the Board, and several Decisions (Nos. 3,228, 3,481, 3,483, and 3,516) affirm that a transfer is not allowable if it places a member of a works council under any disadvantage on account of his activities in this capacity. Another Decision (No. 3,057), on the contrary, considers the consent of the Conciliation Board to transfers not necessary, as the Act has not prescribed this exception to the employer's otherwise unrestricted right of transfer.

(*c*) In very close connection with the questions discussed under (*b*) is the question *when* the consent of the Conciliation Board must be applied for. As under section 14 dismissal is not allowable except with the consent of the Conciliation Board, it follows that notice of dismissal and dismissal itself cannot become effective until this consent has been given. But on the other side it has to be considered that sometimes it is necessary to

dismiss workers in circumstances (e.g. unexpected shortage of work or of raw materials, or in case of a lockout) such that the necessary measures cannot be prepared long beforehand. When this happens, if only a short period of notice has to be given, or if, as is not seldom the case, there is an agreement that no notice shall be given, previous application to the Conciliation Board for its consent is impracticable, and in any case the consent could not be given quickly enough.

Some Conciliation Boards propose to take these considerations into account by giving their consent in advance to the dismissal of members of the works council, on condition that the undertaking really is completely closed down within a short time (Decisions No. 3,498, No. 3,500, and No. 3,168). But when the necessity for dismissal can be foreseen long enough beforehand, the employer is in a position to submit his application for consent in good time, and to push on the decision. It is however precisely when the necessary time is not at his disposal that he needs the help of the Conciliation Board. In this case too some Conciliation Boards have tried to simplify matters for him, and have given their subsequent consent to dismissals after the event. Decision No. 3,344 is an example of this. Here the Board held that section 14 was correctly interpreted to mean that the validity of notice of dismissal was dependent on consent *which must be applied for at the same time as the notice is given.* For if restrictions are placed on the employer's right to break the contract of employment when he wishes, then the interpretation of the Act may not go beyond what is necessary for safeguarding the right of the other party to the contract. But the protection of the members of the works council is also secured if the employer informs the worker or employee of his intention to terminate the engagement provided the Conciliation Board considers his reasons for this sufficient. The consent of the Conciliation Board represents only a survey of the facts, leading to a decision whether valid reason really exists for the dismissal. If it does, it would be unfair to force the employer to wait for the decision of the Conciliation Board and to agree to the resulting postponement of the beginning of the period of notice; no harm is really done to the works council, as the notice is only conditionally valid. Decision No. 3,142 (dealing with a case of complete closing down) said that it was sufficient if the consent of the Board was applied for before the day the works were to be closed, and, even though this consent was not uttered until later on, gave it retrospective effect for the dismissals involved

by the closing of the undertaking. Decisions No. 3,235 and No. 3,259 and the Wiener Neustadt Conciliation Board's Decision of 17 July 1924 also gave subsequent consent applying to dismissals which had already been effected.

But in fact the very great majority of Decisions take the opposite view. For instance, several (Nos. 3,036, 3,038, 3,140, 3,250, 3,309, 3,376, 3,408, 3,427; Vienna, 13 May 1924) have not only insisted that the consent of the Board must be applied for *before* the dismissal, but have also asserted that this consent takes effect only from the moment it is granted, so that there is no question of subsequent consent, and previous dismissal is not valid. The Administrative Court also emphatically adopts this standpoint (Decision No. 3,409). It bases its opinion chiefly on the literal meaning of the word " consent " (*Zustimmung*), which does not denote subsequent approval, and on the greater protection which it is the intention of the Act to accord to members of the works council.

One Conciliation Board, indeed, made a further attempt to declare it sufficient that the *application* to the Board for consent to dismissal should be made before the notice is given. This is in harmony with a Decision of the Supreme Court of 22 June 1925, stating that the consent of the Conciliation Board *must be applied for before the notice is given*; this would make it possible to submit the application to the Board and proceed to give notice at once, without waiting for the Board's decision to be taken. But this attempt of the Conciliation Board was most emphatically repudiated by the Administrative Court in its Decision of 21 December 1926, in which it states most definitely (appealing to its previous Decision, cited above, in support) that notice of dismissal is not allowable *until the consent of the Conciliation Board has been granted.* If it is to be valid, the notice must be given *after* the Board's consent has been obtained.

(*d*) If the Conciliation Board declares that the dismissal is invalid because it has refused its consent, this means that the engagement is not terminated but still goes on. In particular, the workman is entitled to his wages for this period, so long as the dismissal has not been made effectively, i.e. *after* the Board has given its consent (Administrative Court, Decision No. 3,409; Central Conciliation Board, No. 3,161). Here we see the disastrous results of the Administrative Court's assertion of its competence in such questions. Two instances may be given of cases in which a settlement was held up for several months. The Wiener

Neustadt and Salzburg Conciliation Boards had issued Decisions (of 17 July 1924 and 7 August 1924) giving subsequent consent to previously announced dismissals; when these Decisions were opposed, it was not until 5 January 1925 that the Administrative Court issued its Decision that this subsequent approval by the two Boards of the dismissals could not be allowed, and left it to the employers to apply all over again for consent to dismissals to be carried out *after* this consent should have been obtained: until which time they must continue to pay wages, if the workers in question had not meanwhile succeeded in finding other posts.

But if a member of a works council is dismissed and consent is subsequently refused, there is yet another consequence. In this case not only his engagement, but also his mandate as member of the council, still holds good. The employer can at any time renounce his claim to the work of the member in question, always provided he continues to pay the wages due, but he cannot in this way prevent him from continuing his activity as member of the council. If the employer refuses to allow this activity, he may be compelled by the Courts, by writ of execution, fine, or imprisonment, to relinquish his opposition, the basis for judicial action being the Decision of the Conciliation Board. This is also the opinion expressed by the Ministry of Social Administration in reply to a question. Furthermore, it is precisely in such cases that the penalties provided by section 14 would be applicable.

Liability of the Works Council to Damages for Breach of Duty

The powers assigned by the Act to the works council are assigned to it not in its own interest, but in that of the workers and employees in the undertaking. It is their business to see that the works council always acts in accordance with its duty; and by an explicit provision of the Act they may require the works council to resign and elect a new one if they think fit. But if an individual worker is injured by action of the works council or some of its members which is contrary to their duty, has he the right to claim compensation? Under Austrian law, anyone who is injured by the fault of another can claim compensation for the injury; conduct contrary to duty is such a fault. For the whole system of works councils, however, it is of the greatest importance to know whether

such claims for damages will stand, as if so the position of member of a works council may involve the holder in liabilities for damages which may hit the poorer members over hard. Liability for damages is always in fact conditional on the commission of a fault, and so on either essential breach of duties or non-fulfilment of them through negligence ; as a rule no blame can rest upon a member of a works council who acts in accordance with the best of his knowledge.

Action by members of the council which is not in accordance with their duties may however easily result in injury to one or more workers. For instance, section 3 (5) of the Act provides that the works council shall see that the laws and regulations respecting the protection of the workers and the prevention of accidents are put into operation and observed, and that in cases of necessity they shall call in the competent authorities. If the works council neglects this duty and a worker is injured, what is the situation ? Can the injured worker claim damages against the members of the council whose duty it was to carry out this supervision ? This question has not yet been the basis of a judicial dispute, perhaps because the larger undertakings are ordinarily liable to compulsory accident insurance, so that this kind of claim for compensation is of little practical importance. But there have as a matter of fact been several disputes over the question whether, when a works council has abstained from opposing a dismissal under section 3 (9) of the Act, the dismissed worker or employee can claim compensation for the injury resulting from the failure to lodge an objection which might quite possibly have succeeded.

In one case of alleged breach of duty the facts were as follows. In an undertaking where the very great majority of the workers belonged to a certain organisation, this majority wished the remaining workers to join their organisation ; when this was refused, they finally demanded the dismissal of the minority, under threat of a strike. This demand was transmitted to the employer by the works council. If it is the works council's action in joining in the demand for dismissal which is considered to have caused an injury, the position of the members of the council in relation to damages is precisely the same as that of the other workers. If it is the presentation of the demand for the dismissal of the workers who would not join the organisation which is taken as the ground for a claim for damages, here again no special blame can be attached to the works council by reason of the fact that it is not given the power to put forward such demands, but would,

under section 3 (9), rather be in a position to oppose them. The members of the works council are thus liable for damages to exactly the same extent as all the other workers who joined in this demand.

But matters are otherwise as regards the question of objection. For the works council alone is entitled to object to dismissal, when the reason for this was that the dismissed worker had made use of the right of coalition and refused to join a certain organisation. But is the council *obliged* to object ? If such a duty is accepted, then as soon as the works council can recognise that ground for objection really exists, failure to object — unless it can be justified — would in fact appear a breach of duty and render the council liable to damages.

In a Decision of 16 October 1921 the Vienna District Court (*Landesgericht*) denied the existence of such liability of the members of the works council. The reason given for this opinion was that the duties imposed upon the works council by the Works Councils Act fall within the domain of public law, so that they cannot give rise to a claim by a worker for damages. But this view cannot be maintained, because the position of the works council cannot be regarded as coming under public law ; and further because breach of duty by even a public body may give rise to a claim for damages, so far as this is not expressly excluded by law, which is not the case as regards the works council. The question is therefore still left open by this Decision, as the Supreme Court has not considered in any further detail whether the works council is obliged to lodge the objection.

A Decision of the Vienna Conciliation Board of 9 November 1923 (No. 3,336) recognised such an obligation. The Board's argument is that the objection is not left to the arbitrary discretion of the works council, but that it is rather the duty of the council to object to the dismissal if the reason for it is one of those contemplated by the Act ; and that this follows from the nature of the institution of works councils, and also from the introduction to section 3 (" In particular, the following matters shall come within the sphere of their rights *and duties* "). The opposite view was taken by the Central Conciliation Board in a Decision of 16 May 1923 (No. 3,160), stating that the Act merely gives the works council the right, and does not impose upon it the duty, of opposing a dismissal ; so that it is left to the absolute discretion of the council to decide whether in any given case it will make use of this right or not. The Central Conciliation Board of course only intended to deprive the dismissed worker of the right to sue the works council

and so force it to object; it did not in this case concern itself with the question whether he could claim damages. But if the works council fails to object without sound reasons, its liability for damages cannot be contested. For, as has already been said, the powers of the works council are given it, not as a right of its own, but as duties towards the workers and employees it represents, and like everyone else the members of the Council must make amends for the injury they inflict by conduct which is a breach of duty.

The demand for the dismissal of a worker or employee may however be justified, and failure to object is not always necessarily a breach of duty. An example of this is provided by a Decision of the Vienna Conciliation Board issued shortly after the Works Councils Act came into force. The workers in a large bread factory, which at the time was indispensable for feeding the population of Vienna, had presented to the employer through the works council a demand for the dismissal of the only worker in the undertaking who did not belong to the trade union. When their demand was refused, they struck. The Conciliation Board decided that the demand was abundantly justified, as the worker in question had made himself so obnoxious to all the rest by his quarrelsome and cantankerous behaviour and repeated insults to themselves and their trade union that they could not be expected to work with him any longer.

Conclusion

Putting together all the disputes and decisions recounted above, we surely find ample confirmation of the statements made in the early part of this article. Nowhere has there been a contest directed against the institution of the works councils as such. This indicates that the employers are reconciled to them; and the efforts of the workers are not concerned with revolutionary reforms, but with reasonable extensions of the competence of the works councils, in which their standpoint cannot always be condemned offhand as being without foundation in the Act. Most of the Decisions deal with isolated questions, and the large number of further Decisions which might also have been cited here are also concerned only with questions which modify little in the system set up by the Act.

On the whole, then, the conclusions of Mr. Berthelot[1] as to the effects of the German Works Councils Act may be applied almost word for word to Austria :

In the majority of undertakings the Act . . . is now working normally. The employers have accepted it as a sign of the times, and as one of the least of the evils which the Revolution might have brought them. It does not appear to be threatened by the offensive declared in industrial circles in 1923 against the social legislation of the Republic, and in particular against the 8-hour day. There has been no talk of suppressing works councils. On the contrary, there is a general desire to utilise them, both employers and workers wishing to turn them to their own account. The workers are abandoning the idea of making political capital out of the Act, and are obeying the instructions of the trade unions, which are the defenders of their trade interests.

Works councils are now only a shadow of the workers' councils of the Revolution, which were modelled on the soviets. . . . They should be considered as part of a whole and should not be judged solely on the practical results which they have so far achieved, but rather in relation to the reforms which the Republican Government has already carried out, or which it proposes to effect.

From this point of view works councils are one of the most important triumphs of the German proletariat. They have sometimes been accused of being a mere piece of bureaucratic machinery and a drag on economic progress. It has also been said that the progress achieved is next to nothing in comparison with the heavy expense and complications of all kinds occasioned by the creation of such new bodies representative of the workers. On the workers' side, the inadequacy of the Act has been denounced, and radical amendment demanded. These criticisms are due to an overstrict interpretation of the Act. One should look beyond the present to the future and consider how works councils may develop. The work which they have accomplished, though its importance cannot be overrated, is no more than a first attempt. The normal process of evolution is going on, slowly perhaps, but methodically and surely.

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[1] INTERNATIONAL LABOUR OFFICE : *Works Councils in Germany*, by M. BERTHELOT, pp. 131-132. Studies and Reports, Series B, No. 13. Geneva, 1924.

Vocational Guidance in Great Britain

by

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The problem of vocational guidance in Great Britain is complicated by a variety of conditions, social, economic, and educational, chief among them perhaps being unemployment, the prevalence of which for some time past has made it impossible to apply any genuine principles of choice of employment. This situation must necessarily be taken into account in considering the activities of the official organisations for vocational guidance. The present system, which dates back to 1909-1910, comprises both Juvenile Advisory Committees, working under the Ministry of Labour in connection with the Employment Exchanges, and Choice of Employment Committees under the Local Education Authorities, the two schemes working in co-operation. Both types of Committee work on similar lines, their main functions being to advise boys and girls under eighteen with regard to the choice of employment suited to their mental and physical capacities, and to study the conditions of employment, both local and national, so far as these affect the prospects of boys and girls. In spite of the difficulties caused by abnormal industrial conditions and by certain defects in present legislation, such as the gap between the school-leaving age and the age of entry into unemployment insurance, there is growing recognition by employers and the public of the work of the Committees in safeguarding boys and girls against future unemployment or even unemployability.

The Pioneer Work of Voluntary Agencies

THE importance of guiding young people at the time they leave school to enter industry has been recognised by educationists and social workers in Great Britain for many years. Long before the question of advising school-leavers as to their choice of employment became a subject for official enquiry and subsequent action by Government Departments, schoolmasters, and others engaged is the training of youth were fully alive to the danger of boys

embarking on occupations solely from the point of view of wage-earning and without considering the importance of securing work of a probationary nature, or, what usually amounts to the same thing, work that offers reasonably good prospects of an adult livelihood.

The published reports of boys' clubs in England, dating back for more than thirty years, make reference to the establishment in the clubs of voluntary agencies for advising boys as regards their employment and for assisting them to obtain suitable work. Numerous elementary schools, too, have for many years conducted with great advantage to their scholars unofficial labour bureaux of a very simple kind, consisting generally of little more than a friendly arrangement between the Head Teacher and particular employers of labour, under which school-leavers are launched on their industrial careers after full consideration of their personal qualifications, tastes, and abilities, and with due regard to the conditions and prospects of the employment to be entered.

Voluntary organisations of this kind have done, and still do, most valuable work in dealing with the boys and girls who come directly under their purview. But it is obvious that such agencies have serious limitations. In the first place, they cannot cope with the problem as it affects all school-leavers, because the number of industrial vacancies notified to the schools, in this promiscuous way, is insufficient to meet the full demand for employment; and, in the case of club bureaux, because a small minority only of the juvenile population are members of boys' clubs and girls' clubs. Further, it is rarely, if ever, that a Head Teacher or club manager has the wide experience of industrial conditions necessary to qualify him to advise young people on the choice of a career. While he is probably in a better position than any official adviser to know the educational attainments and the bent of a particular boy with whom he may have been in touch for some years, he cannot be sufficiently familiar with the commercial and technical organisation of industrial concerns of great variety, and with their constantly changing methods, to ensure that his advice will be the best that can be given.

It is, however, in some measure due to the pioneer work of these voluntary agencies that the social and economic problems of juvenile labour have, in recent years, attracted a considerable amount of public interest, which has led to the holding of many official enquiries and to a good deal of legislation affecting the welfare of children and young persons.

In view of the fact that the question of vocational guidance has become entangled in a whole series of closely allied problems,

which have mainly arisen since the war, it may help to a better understanding of the present position if the broad conditions of juvenile employment, as they were known to social workers before the war, are briefly stated.

Juvenile Employment before the War

In the decade immediately before the war the demand for juvenile labour was generally in excess of the supply, despite the recruitment of quite young children for the labour market which was rendered possible by full or partial exemption from school attendance, under the by-laws of most of the Local Education Authorities. The system of half-time work for children of 12 years of age, which was very common in the textile industries until the passing of the Education Act of 1918, and the extent to which still younger children were employed out of school hours, mainly as errand runners and shop assistants, perpetuated and stimulated the old demand for cheap labour, and added difficulties to the task of persuading adolescents to engage in work of an educative and progressive character. The manual trades were to a large extent so organised as to permit the entrance of learners or apprentices, with or without some form of indenture, and many commercial firms were prepared to engage promising boys and girls from the elementary schools to be trained with definite objectives. The immediate wages offered for such employment were, of course, comparatively low. On the other hand, the competition between employers in industries of all kinds for the services of young labourers to engage in work of an unprogressive and fugitive nature, resulted in the payment of disproportionately high wages for such services. These " blind-alley " occupations (as they were commonly termed by students of sociology) attracted large numbers of school-leavers, a high percentage of whom had attained a fair educational standard, and who were in other ways well fitted to learn a trade or to be trained in commercial pursuits. The natural desire of boys to earn big wages ; their characteristic lack of thought for the morrow ; the economic position of their parents which in many cases rendered the children's wages a necessary and valuable contribution to the family income ; the indifference and apathy of some parents, and, perhaps, the cupidity of others ; all conspired to make probationary work unpopular with youth at the commencement of its industrial career.

The economic problem of " blind-alley " employment became a commonplace in discussion among social workers; and much public attention was drawn to it through the prevalence of unemployment among young men who were discharged, as a matter of course, at the age of 17 or 18 years, by employers who made a regular practice of replacing their older workers by successive relays of school-leavers. The added disadvantages of this kind of juvenile work, from the point of view of the education and moral training of adolescents, were, however, only dimly appreciated; and it was largely left to voluntary agencies to discover and to deal with industrial misfits as best they could.

It will be seen from this brief survey that the problem of vocational guidance before the war was difficult but not complex. In the case of a boy leaving school, it consisted not merely of finding a job for him — he could do that only too easily himself — but of persuading him to refuse tempting offers of rough labouring work, with comparatively high remuneration, and to accept a post as learner or apprentice in some branch of industry for which he might best be adapted. Then to secure, so far as possible, that he remained in his chosen vocation, and that he did not — as frequently happens with boys — give up his job on the slightest provocation or for some entirely frivolous reason. The voluntary club bureaux were also largely concerned with the still more difficult question of advising boys, who had already gone into " blind-alley " occupations, to relinquish that kind of work before they reached an age which would absolutely preclude them from entrance to any of the skilled trades. The placing of such older boys in progressive employment was by no means easy; but, with the assistance of the official Juvenile Employment Bureaux which came into being a few years before the war, it was usually possible, particularly if the change could be effected before the age of 16 years was reached. For the rest, there remained, at the best, the lucky chance of promotion, under the same employer, to some different position that would afford a reasonable adult livelihood; or, at the worst, casual labour, unemployment, and often unemployability.

Juvenile Employment during the War

The dislocation of industry and commerce during the war period accentuated and complicated the problems of juvenile

work. The absence of men on active service, synchronising as it did with a huge increase in the output of factories engaged in all kinds of work of national importance, created a demand for labour that was almost insatiable. To meet it, every justifiable expedient, and, indeed, any that public opinion was likely to countenance, was adopted. Children were exempted from school, either full time or half time, in greater numbers and at an even earlier age than had been customary for many years prior to the war. The employment of children out of school hours was very general, and involved large numbers of girls as well as of boys. Unsuitable occupations in the distributive trades were commonly undertaken by girls, and many boys were thus released for heavier work. The munition firms extensively employed juvenile workers in the automatic and semi-automatic processes of engineering. Adolescent boys, in particular, performed tasks of greater difficulty and responsibility than had, probably, ever fallen to the lot of youth. Juvenile work, in fact, tended more and more to approximate to the work that had previously been done by adults, and its wage value became correspondingly high — so high, indeed, as frequently to render boys and girls economically independent of their parents, with results that were sometimes deplorable.

Under such abnormal conditions, vocational guidance in the real sense was practically impossible. Not only were school-leavers introduced to industry as mere process workers, but juveniles who had already been placed in satisfactory employment were tempted by the prospect of big wages to divert their services to war work. The activities of the voluntary agencies in schools and clubs almost ceased, and it was mainly left to the comparatively new official Juvenile Employment Bureaux to wrestle with a very intricate situation. It would be difficult to exaggerate the value of the work done by these Bureaux during the war. They provided a ready means of communication between employers and the young recruits for the labour market; they were able at least to secure that the entry of boys and girls into unprogressive occupations should be limited, so far as possible, to work of national importance; they evolved, and in many instances successfully operated, after-care schemes for the social betterment of their young charges; and they accumulated considerable experience of modern industrial conditions, which stood them in very good stead during the transition from war to peace, and which has added to their qualifications to deal with the present-day problems of juvenile labour. But, as the function for which they were primarily

brought into existence was, to a considerable degree, subordinated to the pressing needs of the war period, they became (temporarily at any rate) something much more in the nature of juvenile employment exchanges than of juvenile advisory bureaux.

The old and fairly well defined perils of uneducative and unprogressive work had receded into the background, so far as the public was concerned ; and it says much for the enthusiasm and devotion of the depleted staffs of the Bureaux and their advisory committees that the importance of vocational guidance was not altogether forgotten during the war.

Juvenile Employment since the War

The transition of British industry from war to peace conditions naturally affected in a vital degree the whole position of the juvenile worker as it had existed for some years. The closing of the munition works threw thousands of boys and girls out of work ; a big proportion of them were without skill in anything except the minutely specialised process on which they had been particularly engaged, and for which there was no longer any demand ; large numbers of them joined the rapidly increasing ranks of the unemployed adults, and many drifted into unemployability. During the general demobilisation, the gradual but wholesale displacement of juveniles who had temporarily filled the positions of men on active service resulted in a youthful scramble for any kind of work with remuneration approximating to the inflated wages to which these boys and girls had become accustomed. The difficulties of re-absorbing these displaced juveniles into other industries were greatly accentuated by their indisposition (amounting often to a flat refusal) to consider offers of the wages normally paid to workers of their age. The trade slump that followed shortly after the armistice considerably reduced the available amount of employment throughout the whole country, and the very natural and just public demand that ex-service men should be given preference in obtaining work contributed still further to the limitation of openings for young people.

While accurate statistics of juvenile unemployment are unavailable, it may safely be estimated that at least ten per cent. of juveniles between the ages of 14 and 18 were out of work in 1921 ; and, although the position has slowly improved, a recent

statement furnished by the Ministry of Labour to the Committee on Education and Industry (England and Wales)[1] reveals the fact that 5.7 per cent. of insured boys and 6.7 per cent. of insured girls were unemployed in August 1926[2]. The incidence of such unemployment is found to vary greatly as between industry and industry, and therefore, to a large extent, as between town and town. The official returns of the Ministry of Labour show variations from 2 per cent. in the printing and allied trades to 14.2 per cent. in the ship-building industry[3]; and that while the percentage of unemployed girls in Birmingham is computed to be as low as 1.8, the comparative statistic for Stoke-on-Trent reaches the alarming figure of 33.6[4]. The average rate of unemployment among insured juveniles during 1924 and 1925 was 4.1 per cent., and during 1926, when the industrial situation was of course abnormal, it was 5.1 per cent.

The grave educational, moral, and social problems arising out of the prevalence of juvenile unemployment are, perhaps, rather wide of the scope of this article. But the fact that there is now a surplus of unemployed juvenile labour — a post-war innovation in industry which is likely to continue for some years yet — has a marked repercussion on the whole question of vocational guidance. The keen competition of older boys and girls for openings narrows the choice of employment for school-leavers. The common knowledge that there are not enough jobs to go round makes for hurried and ill-considered entrance into the first available vacancy. The dread of a spell of unemployment immediately on leaving school affects both the child and his parents, and they usually prefer (wisely enough perhaps) any kind of work to no work at all. The congested state of the labour market and the consequent demand for cheap labour, combined with the increasing use of automatic machinery for specialised processes, have tended on the one hand largely to widen the field for the unskilled and semi-skilled services of juveniles, and on the other hand to restrict the openings into probationary work.

So long as this condition of affairs continues, it is evident that those who are called upon to advise young people about their

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[1] *Report of the Committee on Education and Industry (England and Wales).* First Part. London, H.M. Stationery Office, 1926.

[2] *Idem,* Appendix VI, p. 110.

[3] *Idem,* Appendix VII, p. 111.

[4] *Idem,* Appendix VI, p. 110. This figure includes short-time workers.

employment must be prepared to compromise with the evils of " blind-alley " occupations — an attitude that would have been condemned as rank heresy before the war. Since there are now not nearly sufficient vacancies offering prospects of permanent adult employment to admit all well-qualified juvenile applicants for work, it would be the height of unwisdom to refuse to place them in less satisfactory avenues to industry. As things are at present, an employer of the worst forms of unskilled or casual labour can obtain an almost unlimited supply of willing young entrants by merely announcing his needs in a curt notice on the door to his works. Far better is it that such perilous placings should have the cognisance of official advisers who realise the dangers at the outset and whose duty it is to find, as soon as may be practicable, safer paths for these young people, or at least to maintain a friendly oversight of them.

The general problems of juvenile employment are probably indigenous to the modern industrial world; but in Great Britain the aftermath of war has intensified the inherent difficulties of the question, and, in particular, it has caused the present situation as regards vocational guidance to become one of great complexity. It is well that the position should be understood, so that an approach may be made to a survey of official activities, with full appreciation of the difficulties encountered in the past and of the obstacles still to be surmounted.

Historical Survey of Official Activities

The conditions of juvenile labour and the cognate question of vocational guidance were probably first brought officially into prominence by the Reports of the Royal Commission on the Poor Laws (1909)[1], and by Mr. Cyril Jackson's Report on Boy Labour[2] which was published as an appendix to the Reports of the Commission. It was therein disclosed that a large amount of adult unemployment, unemployability, and poverty, was directly due to the carelessness with which young people were launched upon occupations that were without training, permanence,

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[1] *Report of the Royal Commission on the Poor Laws and Relief of Distress.* Cd. 499. London, H.M. Stationery Office, 1909.

[2] *Report on Boy Labour,* Cd. 4632. London, H.M. Stationery Office, 1909.

or definite prospect. The mass of evidence proved conclusively that considerable numbers of youths were thrown out of work at the age of 17 or 18, not because they were inefficient, but simply because the services they rendered were not economically worth an adult wage and could be performed equally well by still younger labourers at a cheaper rate of pay. It was discovered that one-third of the applications for assistance from Distress Committees came from men under the age of 30, a high percentage of whom were unemployable owing to early lack of industrial training and discipline. In the words of the Minority of the Poor Law Commission, they might be said " to graduate into unemployment as a matter of course"[1]. The publicity given to the Royal Commission's Reports, and to other factors of the juvenile problem which were clearly set out in the Report of the Consultative Committee on Continuation Schools[2], was well timed and very effective in furthering legislation and administrative action.

The first important step was the passing of the Labour Exchanges Act of 1909, which empowered the Board of Trade to establish Labour Exchanges, subsequently termed " Employment Exchanges ". It also authorised the setting up, at the instance of the Board of Trade, of Juvenile Advisory Committees consisting of representatives of the Local Education Authorities, employers, workpeople, teachers, and others interested in the welfare of young people. The duty of these Committees was to advise " with regard to the management of any Labour Exchange in its district in relation to juvenile applicants for employment "[3]. The Committees were further empowered " either by themselves or in co-operation with any other bodies or persons, to give information, advice, and assistance to boys and girls and their parents with respect to the choice of employment and other matters bearing thereon "[4]. It was however, expressly provided that the " Board of Trade and the officer in charge of a Labour Exchange should undertake no responsibility with regard to any advice or assistance so given "[5]. Despite this somewhat ambiguous and, perhaps, overcautious

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1 ROYAL COMMISSION: *op. cit.*, p. 1167.

2 *Report of the Consultative Committee on Attendance, compulsory or otherwise, at Continuation Schools.* Cd. 4757. London, H.M. Stationery Office, 1909.

3 BOARD OF TRADE: *Special Rules with regard to Registration of Juvenile Applicants in England and Wales made in pursuance of Regulation No. IX of the General Regulations for Labour Exchanges managed by the Board of Trade.* London, H.M. Stationery Office, 1910.

4 *Ibid.*

5 *Ibid.*

delegation of powers, Juvenile Advisory Committees began to function in many areas, and special Juvenile Departments were organised in connection with the Employment Exchanges.

In November 1910 the Education (Choice of Employment) Act was passed. It conferred upon Local Education Authorities the power, but not the duty, " to make arrangements, subject to the approval of the Board of Education, for giving to boys and girls under the age of 17 assistance with respect to the choice of suitable employment by means of the collection and communication of information and the furnishing of advice ". (The upper age limit was subsequently raised to 18 years by the Education Act of 1918.) It will be observed that this permissive power was analogous to that exercisable by the Juvenile Advisory Committees already set up by the Board of Trade, and that it was conceivable that two differently appointed Committees might exist in the same area to perform similar functions. This, and other considerations, led, in January 1911, to the issue, by the Board of Trade and the Board of Education, of a Joint Memorandum[1], in which was laid down the cardinal principle of co-operation between Local Authorities exercising powers, and the Employment Exchanges. The Memorandum urged upon Local Authorities the desirability of undertaking the responsibilities offered to them by the Choice of Employment Act, and declared an interregnum of one year during which the Board of Trade would refrain from appointing further Juvenile Advisory Committees except in areas where the Local Authorities definitely decided not to exercise their powers. While many of the larger Education Authorities took early advantage of the new Act, the majority of the Authorities either delayed their decisions or preferred to leave the whole matter to the Board of Trade — influenced to some extent, no doubt, by the fact that a Choice of Employment Scheme involves a certain charge on the local rates, whereas a Juvenile Advisory Committee is entirely financed out of state funds. The two types of Committees were, therefore, at work in different areas before the war, but many places were without Committees of either kind.

In August 1916 the Departmental Committee on Juvenile Education in Relation to Employment after the War issued an

[1] Board of Trade and Board of Education : *Memorandum with regard to co-operation between Labour Exchanges and Local Education Authorities exercising their powers under the Education (Choice of Employment) Act, 1910.* London, H.M. Stationery Office, 1911.

Interim Report[1], drawing attention to the valuable work done by such Juvenile Employment Bureaux as had been set up either locally or by the Board of Trade, and emphasising the urgent need for completing their establishment throughout the country. The Report stated that although local committees existed in some 60 county boroughs and about 40 smaller towns, there was no such provision in 20 county boroughs (including several large towns with a population over 200,000) and in some 130 smaller towns and large urban districts. In anticipating with commendable accuracy and acuteness the extent to which the post-war dislocation of industry would affect the conditions of juvenile employment, the Departmental Committee declared " that it would be a grave dereliction of public duty if, whilst the means are at hand to offer valuable assistance, large numbers of young persons were turned upon the labour market without that guidance which even in normal circumstances has been recognised as necessary "[2].

The growing appreciation of the need for safeguarding the interests of young workers was further stimulated by the publication in 1917 of the main Report[3] of the Departmental Committee, whose findings contributed substantially to the framing and passing of the Education Act of 1918, with its many provisions for the education and social welfare of adolescents. A few extracts from this truly epoch-making Report, which bear directly on the subject of vocational guidance, will give some indication of the situation as it then existed and of the enlightened attitude towards it.

The range of employment open to juveniles is a wide one, and any general statement of its conditions must be prefaced by the warning that these vary considerably in detail from industry to industry, from locality to locality, and even from business to business. At the top of the scale come the apprentices or learners ; at the bottom many factory workers and others engaged in " blind-alley " occupations. Apprentices are employed, not for their immediate commercial utility, but in order to maintain or increase at a future date the supply of skilled workmen in their industry. . . . The fact that the age of apprenticeship is in some areas nearer 16 than 15 years of age unfortunately causes a considerable gap to intervene between the time when juveniles leave school and the time when they settle down to learn a trade. During this interval they have nothing but more or less casual occupations to fall back upon, and, when they finally enter their industries, are in most cases

[1] *Interim Report.* Cd. 8374. London, H.M. Stationery Office, 1916
[2] *Ibid.*, para. 5.
[3] *Final Report of the Departmental Committee on Juvenile Education in relation to Employment after the war.* Cd. 8512. London. H.M Stationery Office, 1917.

less well equipped than when they left school two years before. Moreover, apprenticeship does not by itself give a training which fits boys for modern industrial conditions. As a system of training, it was developed when industry was stable, methodical, and regular, and it is not fully suited to an age when it is unstable, changing, and irregular. . . . What is required in addition to manual dexterity is general industrial knowledge and intelligence which will enable juveniles to adapt themselves to changing industrial conditions. But such general adaptability apprenticeship does not of itself give[1].

Far worse, however, is the state of the large number of children in " blind-alley " occupations. These are not engaged to learn a trade with a view to practising it as adults, but are merely employed for their immediate commercial utility upon simple operations. The only reason for their employment is the fact that, as instruments of production, they are cheaper than adults[2].

Before proceeding to discuss possible remedies and to make constructive proposals, the Departmental Committee summed up the case in a few searching questions :

Can the age of adolescence be brought out of the purview of economic exploitation and into that of the social conscience ? Can the conception of the juvenile as primarily a little wage earner be replaced by the conception of the juvenile as primarily the workman and the citizen in training ? Can it be established that the educational purpose is to be the dominating one, without as well as within the school doors, during those formative years between 12 and 18[3] ?

In the face of so vigorous an indictment, followed as it was by a general demand both in Parliament and in the press for the application of the remedial measures advocated in the Report, it cannot be wondered at that Local Education Authorities and the Government Departments concerned were impelled to extend their activities.

Early in 1917 the Ministry of Labour took over from the Board of Trade the responsibility of administering the Employment Exchanges, and the work of setting up Juvenile Advisory Committees in areas where the Local Education Authorities were not operating their own schemes proceeded apace. The number of Choice of Employment Schemes submitted to, and approved by, the Board of Education increased steadily, many Authorities being influenced, no doubt, by the new responsibilities placed upon them by the Education Act of 1918 in connection with the employment of children out of school hours and the street trading of young persons, the fixing of the minimum school-leaving age at

[1] *Ibid.*, para. 6.
[2] *Ibid.*, para. 7.
[3] *Ibid.*, para. 9.

14 years, and the prospective establishment of Day Continuation Schools — part-time attendance at which would eventually be compulsory for juveniles up to the age of 18 years. Experience unfortunately proved that these co-operative schemes had in some areas engendered a certain amount of friction between the Local Authorities and the Ministry of Labour. These difficulties were increased in 1920 when the passing of the Unemployment Insurance Act, 1920, extended the principle of insurance against unemployment (first introduced for adults by the National Insurance Act, 1911) to cover practically all occupied juveniles between the ages of 16 and 18 years, and increased the responsibilities of the Ministry of Labour for such juveniles in all areas, including those where local Choice of Employment Schemes were in operation.

The position became so complicated that the Government appointed Lord Chelmsford to inquire into " the difficulties which have arisen in giving effect to the Joint Memorandum of the Presidents of the Board of Trade and the Board of Education of the 3rd January 1911 . . . and to make recommendations as to the arrangements which should be made ... for advising and assisting young persons in choosing and obtaining suitable employment, regard being had to the Education Act, 1918, and the Unemployment Insurance Act, 1920. " Lord Chelmsford submitted his Report[1] to the Prime Minister on 23 July 1921. He found that there existed in 130 areas Juvenile Advisory Committees appointed and maintained financially by the Ministry of Labour, and that Choice of Employment Committees acting as Sub-Committees of Local Education Authorities were operating in 100 areas, their work being maintained by the Authorities and the Board of Education, with the Ministry of Labour bearing certain expenses in respect of functions assigned to them by the Schemes of co-operation. Lord Chelmsford saw no inherent reason why a Committee of either kind should not perform the work with complete efficiency; but, after drawing attention to the apparently inevitable clashes of interests produced by the co-operative system, he emphasised the importance of removing the uncertainty that had existed from year to year as to the policy of the Government in the matter. His main recommendations were that the methods of co-operation laid down in the Joint Memorandum must be abandoned and that Authorities who had adopted, or in future

[1] *Juvenile Employment Enquiry. Report by the Rt. Hon. The Viscount Chelmsford.* London, H.M. Stationery Office, 1921.

decided to adopt, the Choice of Employment Act should be required to undertake the whole of the work, including the local administration of Unemployment Insurance in respect of young persons under 18 years of age.

Lord Chelmsford's Report was adopted by the Government, and the legislation necessary to give effect to his recommendations was embodied in section 6 of the Unemployment Insurance Act, 1923. It was therein enacted that a Local Education Authority should not, after 31 March 1924, exercise Choice of Employment powers unless it also undertook the work of administering unemployment benefit to boys and girls between the ages of 16 and 18 years. Provision was also made for the Ministry of Labour to reimburse Local Authorities the amount of their expenditure on this new service, in addition, of course, to the sums paid in benefit to qualified unemployed juveniles. Thus the co-operative system was definitely abandoned in 1921 and the administrative difficulties have since been considerably lessened. Both Choice of Employment Committees and Juvenile Advisory Committees have in their respective areas laboured unceasingly to help boys and girls to choose their occupations wisely, and to alleviate in some measure the unfortunate lot of those for whom it has been impossible to find work of any kind.

The Existing Position

An admirable review of the present situation is contained in the First Part of the Report of the Committee on Education and Industry (England and Wales) dated 3 November 1926[1]. This Committee was appointed by the President of the Board of Education and the Minister of Labour " to enquire into and advise upon the public system of education in England and Wales in relation to the requirements of trade and industry, with particular reference to the adequacy of the arrangements for enabling young persons to enter into and retain suitable employment. " Their present Report deals mainly with the latter part of their Terms of Reference and covers a wide field of questions affecting vocational guidance and the correlated problems of juvenile labour and juvenile unemployment. It should be carefully studied by all

[1] Committee on Education and Industry : *op. cit.*

who desire to obtain a good conspectus of the existing position in England and Wales and adequate knowledge of the reasons which have led the Committee first to reject (mainly on grounds of immediate impracticability) reforms that are extensively advocated and then to make recommendations that will probably call for the early consideration of Parliament and Local Authorities.

For the sake of brevity and convenience it will, perhaps, be permissible herein to refer to the Committee's Report as the "Malcolm"[1] Report. It shows that Choice of Employment Schemes are in operation in the areas covered by 11 County Councils and by the Local Authorities for 56 County Boroughs, 26 Boroughs, and 21 Urban Districts. The distribution of the work between Local Education Authorities on the one hand, and the Ministry of Labour on the other, is also indicated in the following manner. In England and Wales there are 349 Employment Exchange areas. In 166 of these areas the Local Education Authority is responsible, and in 191 the Ministry of Labour undertakes all the duties[2]. The number of Juvenile Advisory Committees in existence is 121, including 22 in London alone. The work of the London Committees is co-ordinated, for the whole administrative area which they cover, by the London Advisory Council for Juvenile Employment.

The position in Scotland is not dealt with in the Malcolm Report, but it may here be noted that, with the single exception of Edinburgh (where the Local Authority led the whole country by establishing so early as in 1908 an "Educational Information and Employment Bureau" which has continued ever since under their auspices), Juvenile Advisory Committees under the Ministry of Labour are almost universal in Scotland.

The Malcolm Report estimates that at the present time the maximum number of boys and girls with whom the Juvenile Employment Bureaux and Exchanges could be called upon to deal is something over two millions[3], representing a yearly intake to employment of about 600,000. In the twelve months ended 20 September 1926, the number of situations found for juveniles by the public agencies was 224,645[4]. This figure does not repre-

[1] Mr. D. O. Malcolm is the Chairman of the Committee.

[2] In eight areas there are offices of both types, each office serving a separate district.

[3] The census of 1921 returned 1,938,226 "occupied" juveniles between 14 and 18 in England and Wales.

[4] *Malcolm Report*, para. 25.

sent the number of individual juveniles for whom places were found, as the same boy or girl may have been placed more than once in the course of the year. It is impossible to say definitely what proportion of the situations entered by juveniles is found for them by Employment Exchanges of the Ministry of Labour and the Juvenile Employment Bureaux of Local Education Authorities. Nor does that matter much; for, as the Malcolm Report well states,

> The range of Choice of Employment work would be quite inadequately described simply by statistics of placings. The functions of giving information and advice, though they could hardly be exercised without some related placing machinery, remain of primary, not secondary, importance, and a large percentage of the leavers from Public Elementary Schools in any year receive assistance from Local Education Authorities or the Ministry of Labour. This assistance frequently results in a satisfactory appointment being obtained, even though this is not effected through the official machinery[1].

It is, however, estimated that as regards actual placing the public agencies in England and Wales do not deal with more than 20 per cent. of the situations or of the juvenile workers and potential workers concerned.

Before proceeding to a brief description of the main features of the work of Choice of Employment Committees and Juvenile Advisory Committees it will be convenient here to note an important distinction which must be drawn between the positions, under the present state of the law, of young persons in the age groups 14-16 and 16-18 respectively. Both of these groups are covered by the Choice of Employment Act and by other important provisions in the Education Act, 1918 (now embodied in the Education Act, 1921), affecting the question of vocational guidance, but only the elder group by the Unemployment Insurance Acts. The insured juveniles of 16 to 18 must attend the Employment Exchanges or Juvenile Employment Bureaux to obtain or to exchange their unemployment books, and if they lose their employment and desire to claim unemployment benefit they may be required to attend daily to sign the unemployed register. Further, they may be required, as a condition of the receipt of benefit, to attend approved courses of instruction at Juvenile Unemployment Centres. There is, however, no statutory provision to secure the attendance of boys and girls between the ages of 14 and 16 at

[1] *Ibid.*, para. 26.

the Exchanges or Bureaux. Until the end of the school term in which the juvenile becomes 14 he is at school and directly within the care of the Education Authority. On attaining the age of 16 he is brought into close contact with the official agencies by means of Unemployment Insurance. But during the intervening two years he need not, and in too many cases does not, visit the Exchange or Bureau; it is not officially known whether he is in suitable employment or any employment; and if he is out of work he cannot be required to attend an Unemployment Centre, since he is outside the scope of the Unemployment Insurance Acts. This gap in the public supervision of young persons militates against the efficacy of the official arrangements for giving advice and finding employment. The Committees and the officers concerned lose touch with the majority of school-leavers after the first interviews or placings, and they may not see them again for two years unless, unhappily, the boys and girls lose their situations and come of their own volition to seek assistance in finding other work. The demoralising effects of unemployment are probably more serious in the case of younger boys and girls than in the case of juveniles of 16 to 18; yet it is the younger juveniles who are not obliged to attend instructional courses at Unemployment Centres, which undoubtedly help considerably to mitigate the evils of long spells of unemployment. The effects of this serious gap in the present legislative and administrative provisions for the educational, social, and industrial welfare of adolescents, the possible remedies, and several valuable recommendations as to measures of a more or less palliative nature that might quickly be introduced, are fully set out in the Malcolm Report, to which the interested reader is again referred.

To describe the advisory and placing work of the Choice of Employment Sub-Committees of Local Education Authorities is largely to give a conspectus of the activities of the Juvenile Advisory Committees set up by the Ministry of Labour; for both types of Committees work on very similar lines. The constitution of a Choice of Employment Committee is broadly laid down by the Board of Education in their Circular 1322[1] issued to Local Education Authorities. It provides that the Committee must include members of the Education Committee and should include representatives of employers and workers to a number normally

[1] Board of Education: *Choice of Employment and Administration of Unemployed Benefit to Juveniles.* Circular 1322. Revised 13 February 1924.

amounting to one-third of the whole Committee, together with representatives of voluntary social organisations and teachers, and at least two women. The Committee meets regularly and in general not less often that once a month. Its main functions are (*a*) to arrange that boys and girls under 18 years of age receive either directly, or through their parents, information and advice with regard to the choice of suitable employment; (*b*) to study the state and conditions of employment both local and national, so far as these affect the prospects of boys and girls. The detailed work is usually carried out, under the direction of a specially appointed officer, in a Juvenile Employment Bureau established in premises provided by the Education Authority. The Juvenile Employment Officer is intimately in touch with the schools, and obtains from the Head Teachers lists of children nearing the age of school exemption. These lists are usually furnished on indexed cards specially designed so that school reports as to the character, ability, and physical capacity of individual juveniles may be entered. Children and their parents are invited to consult the Juvenile Employment Officer as to the choice of employment and to use the Bureau as a means of obtaining suitable work. Older juveniles who are unemployed, or unsatisfactorily employed, may be advised or re-placed in situations through the Bureau. After-Care Committees of voluntary workers are in many cases attached to the Bureaux; their aim is to keep in touch with young persons generally, and, in particular, with those placed by the Juvenile Employment Officer, so that their subsequent careers may be watched in a friendly and informal way, and further help given to them if it be needed. Employers of labour are asked to notify their vacancies to the Bureau, where the placing Department registers the information and in due course submits applicants for the open positions.

In the selection and submission of candidates for situations due regard is paid to the mental and physical capacity of the individual child satisfactorily to engage in the particular form of industry in question. The reports of School Medical Officers and Public Health Authorities are usually available for this purpose, and the increasing number of school clinics throughout the country has in recent years rendered information as to the medical history and present physical condition of individual children more accessible and more accurate. Although some experiments in vocational guidance based on psychological tests have recently been conducted (for example, in one area in London by the National

Institute of Industrial Psychology in co-operation with the London County Council and the Local Juvenile Advisory Committee, and also at Cambridge), it is yet too early to decide what success attended them. In view also of the opinion expressed by the International Conference of Vocational Guidance at Toulouse in 1924 (namely, " that the introduction of tests in the actual practice of vocational guidance cannot be recommended as providing methods of psychological examination for regular use "), it is hardly likely that such methods will find any wide application in relation to juvenile employment questions in Great Britain for many years to come.

There are two main points of difference between the detailed working of Juvenile Advisory Committees and that of the Choice of Employment Committees. (1) The Ministry of Labour rarely uses premises provided by the Local Education Authorities, but generally establishes Juvenile Departments in the Employment Exchanges themselves or, occasionally, in separate premises conveniently situated. (2) The actual work of vocational guidance is often undertaken by the members of a Juvenile Advisory Committee, meeting on a rota system, with their Secretary in attendance, to interview school-leavers and their parents; whereas a Choice of Employment Committee usually delegate this important function to their Juvenile Employment Officer, and confine their attention to questions of broad policy and of general administration.

In general, it may be said that school teachers and social workers among young people are co-operating whole-heartedly with the official Committees of both types, and that there is a growing recognition, on the part of Local Authorities, employers of labour, and the public, of the valuable work that is being done by the Juvenile Employment Bureaux in safeguarding boys and girls against misemployment and its concomitant dangers of prospective unemployment or even future unemployability.

Conclusion

From what has here been written it will be seen that the question of vocational guidance in Great Britain is at present inextricably entangled in a maze of social, educational, and economic problems, of which unemployment is the most prominent, if not the most important. Clearly, there can be no general application

of the well-established principles of choice of employment so long as a reasonably free choice does not exist. The only choice now open to a large proportion of the boys and girls of this country is between haphazard and aimless entry into unpromising employment on the one hand, and unemployment on the other. There are two broad reasons for this unhappy state of affairs. First, the obvious one, that while the supply of juvenile labour exceeds the demand there must be a residuum of unemployed juveniles, to avoid which is the primary consideration of school-leavers and their parents. Second, that while the labour market is overstocked there is no incentive to an employer to go out of his way to train young workers; indeed, he is more naturally inclined, for the sake of economy, to utilise the services of superabundant juvenile applicants than to employ adult labour, wherever such substitution can be effected; consequently the field of educative and progressive employment tends to narrow, while the broad path leading to an inevitable *cul de sac* is considerably widened. The very fact that the percentage of adult unemployment is approximately three times as high as the percentage of juvenile unemployment points conclusively to the inability of industry, as at present organised in Great Britain, to absorb into adult employment all the boys and girls engaged in it.

But the problem is more than an industrial one. When a child leaves school, work becomes in most cases the dominant influence on his life. To begin with, work is, for the mass of juveniles, the one compulsory factor in their further education and social training; and for most of them it remains, during the vital years of adolescence, their main interest and sole ambition. If, then, that dominant influence, that one compulsory factor, is, of its very nature, uneducative, unprogressive, and aimless, can it be wondered at that so many young workers lose their youthful enthusiasm and are so often found to be without alertness, initiative, or adaptability?

No system of vocational guidance can be fully effective unless it can operate under reasonably normal conditions from the industrial point of view; for the aim should be not only to guide young workers, but to guide and even to press employers for improved conditions of juvenile labour, and particularly for better facilities for industrial training — a counsel of perfection that can hardly be offered during the present severe depression in trade. Nor will the usefulness of Juvenile Employment Bureaux be fully developed until they are even more closely concerned

with the education and social training of adolescents. As things are they can do little more than persuade the comparatively few voluntarily to attend evening continuation schools, and co-operate with the voluntary organisations which are only able to provide facilities for the recreation and social training of a limited number of boys and girls.

If the gap in the legislative and administrative provisions for the public supervision of juveniles between the school-leaving age and the age of entry into unemployment insurance can be bridged, the Bureaux will at least be able to keep in touch with the majority of boys and girls as regards their employment. But if the gap could be eliminated altogether by raising the age of compulsory attendance at day school to 16 years, or very considerably narrowed by the institution of part-time day continuation schools on a compulsory basis, as contemplated in the Education Act of 1918, the Bureaux would then begin to function fully and more effectively. And for very good reasons. The exclusion from the labour market of great numbers of young boys and girls and the restriction of the industrial services of older juveniles would not only largely solve the problem of juvenile unemployment (and incidentally go a long way, probably, towards mitigating adult unemployment), but would restore in considerable measure that reasonable choice of employment to which, surely, youth should be entitled, and make vocational guidance really practicable in most, if not all, cases. Moreover, the later entry into employment and the further education of adolescents would largely compensate for the loss of industrial training — a loss that is common to many trades under modern methods of production — and would lighten the responsibilities of the Juvenile Employment Bureaux in placing boys and girls in uneducative occupations.

The complete solution of the problems of juvenile employment is probably far to seek, but signs are not wanting in Great Britain that the search will continue and extend. So far as vocational guidance is concerned, it may safely be asserted that the official machinery is well devised and that, given the motive power of a strong and enlightened public opinion, it will not only continue to work efficiently, but it will, in the future, probably play a still more important part in promoting the social and industrial welfare of the youth of the nation.

Industrial Unionism in the Building Trades of the United States

by

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In most industrial countries the disappearance of different classes of occupation due to the steadily increasing concentration of undertakings and to the growth in the use of machinery has led to the gradual replacement of craft unions by industrial unions. Many arguments are put forward on behalf of both types of organisation. These are exemplified and illuminated by the following history of the long-drawn conflict between the two tendencies in the United States building trades, where the craft unionism which is traditional in the American Federation of Labour is still dominant, in spite of many inroads by industrial unionism.

IS industrial unionism likely to supplant craft unionism ? This question is continually being forced upon the attention of interested onlookers by recent developments in the trade union world. In this connection the building industry offers a most interesting field for study. Although it is made up of very strong craft unions, certain tendencies are causing some to express the belief that industrial unionism is about to make serious inroads upon this important industry.

A definition of terms is probably in order here[1]. A craft union is an " organisation of wage workers engaged in a single occupation. . . . The occupation may be limited strictly to one simple task, or may include a number of closely allied tasks or crafts. The strict test of a craft union seems to be that each member of the organisation performs or may perform all the tasks included in the occupation. " An industrial union is a union which " attempts to unite into one homogeneous or organic group all the workers,

[1] These definitions are in accord with those given by Hoxie in *Trade Unionism in the United States* (1919), pp. 38-40.

skilled and unskilled, engaged in turning out and putting on the market a given finished product or series of closely related products."

Now of all the building trades unions in the United States the Carpenters' is by far the largest and most powerful. Its membership constitutes about forty per cent. of the total membership of the building trades and is more than twice as large as that of the next largest union, the Electrical Workers'. It is one of the most aggressive unions in America, to be found in the forefront of all struggles with the employers as well as in many struggles with rival unions. It is simply inconceivable that industrial unionism should make any progress in the building industry if the Carpenters were successfully to persist in maintaining the craft form of organisation. If therefore the Carpenters tend to monopolise our attention in this study, the reason will be clear.

The craft union, the traditional type of organisation in the American Federation of Labour, scored a decisive triumph over the labour union when the Federation superseded the Knights of Labour. But since that time, the introduction of machinery and new processes, with its attendant breaking down of craft lines, has proceeded at a very rapid rate. The unskilled labourers have rapidly become the competitors of the skilled. In most cases the latter can no longer say that the interests of the unskilled workers are unrelated to their own. The result has been a very rapid development of the industrial form of organisation. It is significant to note that industrial unionism is able to threaten the position of craft unionism because it is based upon the self-same fundamental principle, namely, self-interest. The craft union was able to defeat the labour union and to triumph over the various uplift and socialist movements largely because of its appeal to the self-interest of the individual workers. Now arises industrial unionism making its appeal upon the same basis. What will be the result ?

The nature of the appeal made by industrial unionism is plainly apparent in the following resolution introduced (but not adopted) at a recent convention of the American Federation of Labour[1]:

> Whereas, An autocracy of union labour would curse the world as sorely as has the autocracy of capitalism, and
>
> Whereas, By the introduction of machinery, one unskilled man is able to render a large number of skilled mechanics jobless; and
>
> Whereas, Through the process of changing the methods of doing

[1] *Proceedings*, A. F. of L., 1919, p. 348.

the world's work it is not far amiss to state that " there are no crafts at the present stage of industrial development " ; and

Whereas, The new industrial democracy must be met with entirely new plans of action by the toilers ; be it

Resolved . . . that the General Executive Board proceed at once to formulate a plan for the reorganisation of the labour movement; to change from the craft line plan to one based on the plan of industries or " plant unions ".

The introduction of machinery and the breaking down of craft lines make the unskilled workers competitors of the skilled. Now if the skilled workers cannot prevent the introduction of machinery, they must find some other way to eliminate as far as possible the competition of the unskilled. The best way they have found is to bring the unskilled workers into the union. When they do this, it is not chiefly to help the unskilled workers but to help themselves.

The extent of the inroads already made by industrial unionism upon craft unionism, it will be seen from a moment's study, is considerable. Although the Federation has always stood for the craft form of organisation, of the 133 national unions in existence in 1915, most of them affiliated with the Federation, only 28 were strictly craft unions ; and of those 28 about one-half were co-operating in loose alliance with related trades[1]. There is also the development of the amalgamated union, which may rightly be regarded as a mode of transition from craft unionism to industrial unionism[2]. Here we have the organisation of several crafts into a single union, these crafts being engaged in the turning out of a given product or of closely related products. (Not all the workmen so engaged are necessarily included in the union.) Then there is the formation of the various departments of the American Federation of Labour, such as the Building Trades Department, the Railroad Employees' Department, and the Metal Trades Department ; and we should note the close working relationship of the four railroad brotherhoods. Evidence is not wanting that industrial unionism is seriously menacing the position of craft unionism.

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[1] GLOCKER : " Amalgamation of Related Trades in American Unions ", in *American Economic Review*, Sept. 1915, p. 554.

[2] Examples of this type are the Amalgamated Meat Cutters and Butcher Workmen, the International Typographical Union, and the Amalgamated Association of Iron, Tin, and Steel Workers. Hoxie, writing in 1919, stated that " a large proportion of the unions, local and national, in the United States are to-day compound or amalgamated unions " (HOXIE : *Trade Unionism in the United States*, pp. 42-43).

We come now to a consideration of the problem as it presents itself in the building industry, and particularly in the United Brotherhood of Carpenters and Joiners[1]. It may be well to glance briefly at the tendency toward industrial unionism as it has appeared in the history of the Brotherhood. In the beginning the Brotherhood was strictly a craft union. The local unions which existed prior to the formation of the national organisation were strictly craft unions. A few years after its organisation the Brotherhood extended its jurisdiction to include the mill workers[2], and in so doing really ceased to be a craft union. The organisation now included men who could not " perform all the tasks included in the occupation ". The Brotherhood has continued to extend its jurisdiction claims until they cover a number of different kinds of work[3].

On 30 December 1897 representatives of 50,000 building tradesmen assembled in convention in St. Louis to organise the National Building Trades Council of America. Previous to this time local building trades councils had been formed in a number of places with the carpenters co-operating. The objects of the national organisation were " the closer amalgamation of building trades workmen, to establish the national eight-hour day, a national correspondence league, a national working card, and equalisation of wages in the different crafts, to abolish the contract system on public works, to have our differences adjusted by men from our own ranks, to secure legislation in our interest, and to assist all branches of labour to ameliorate their condition.[4] "

The Brotherhood declined to affiliate with the National Building Trades Council on the ground that the carpenters would derive no benefits.[5] In 1902, when a second invitation was extended, the Brotherhood again declined.[6] Apparently the Council was very anxious to have the Brotherhood affiliate, for it made repeated

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[1] Referred to in further footnotes as " U.B. ".

[2] In 1888 the constitution of the Brotherhood was revised so that: " A candidate to be admitted to membership in this United Brotherhood must be a journeyman, carpenter, or joiner, a stair builder, millwright, planing mill bench hand, or any cabinet maker engaged at carpenter work, or any carpenter or any journeyman running woodworking machinery. " *Proceedings*, U.B., 1904, p. 68.

[3] At the present time the Brotherhood claims jurisdiction over the following divisions and subdivisions of the trade : carpenters and joiners, railroad carpenters, bench hands, stair builders, millwrights, furniture workers, shipwrights and boat builders, reed and rattan workers, ship carpenters, joiners, and caulkers, cabinet makers, floor laying, box makers, hedge, dock and wharf carpenters, car building, and all those engaged in the running of woodworking machinery. Constitution, U.B., 1924, section 7.

[4] *Proceedings*, U.B., 1898, pp. 61-62.

[5] *Ibid.*, p. 61.

[6] *Ibid.*, p. 94.

efforts in that direction. In giving reasons for the Brotherhood's refusal to join, the general president stated:

> Your board, however, made a careful perusal of the Constitution of the same and could not recommend affiliation at the time. The chief objection seemed to be the fact that local building trades councils have, or assume, superior power to national organisations in the conduct of strikes and lockouts, while experience has proved that it is those organisations who must furnish the funds. The usual basis of representation in the locals of building trades councils seems to us to be undemocratic and un-American, giving locals of trades having few members equal representation and equal vote with those having many members and at the same time taxation on a *per capita* basis[1].

The Brotherhood's decision to remain outside the National Building Trades Council is not indicative of any fundamental opposition to organisation among the building trades. On 8 October 1903 representatives of nine of the leading trades in the building industry met at Indianapolis to consider the advisability of forming a permanent organisation of the " basic structural building trades "[2]. The new organisation was to be known as the Structural Building Trades Alliance, and the proposition to accept its constitution and by-laws was carried by all the trades represented at the conference, with the exception of the Bricklayers and the Electrical Workers[3]. The principal weakness of the National Building Trades Council was that it made the local building trades council the unit, which brought it into conflict with many of the building trades unions. This the Structural Building Trades Alliance sought to avoid by creating a federation of the building trades.

The attitude of the United Brotherhood toward this new organisation may be seen in the report of the general president to the 1904 convention. He said in part:

> There is no man who has watched the trade movement during the past few years, but can realise the necessity of the building trades' forming such an alliance. In my opinion it will be one of the greatest organisations — provided it is made a success of — in the building trades industry.
>
> Its objects can certainly be commended by every true trade unionist. It will be the means of doing away with many unnecessary strikes, called principally by some small organisation that is not able to help itself,

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[1] *Ibid.*, 1904, p. 140.

[2] The organisations represented were as follows: Bridge and Structural Iron Workers; Bricklayers' and Masons' International Union; United Brotherhood of Carpenters and Joiners; Brotherhood of Painters, Decorators, and Paper Hangers; National Association of Plumbers, Steam, Gas, and Hot-Water Fitters; Plasterers' Protective Association; International Association of Hod Carriers and Building Labourers; International Association of Steam Hoisting Engineers; and International Association of Electrical Workers. *Proceedings*, U.B., 1904, p. 59.

[3] *Proceedings*, U.B., 1904, p. 38.

nor render any material assistance to any other organisation; whereby they, by exorbitant demands, or some petty grievance, that could be settled if good judgment was used, involve at times thousands of men in a sympathetic strike which I believe could and should be avoided as much as possible, and only called when every other honourable means have failed.

The time has come in the trade union movement when every man should lend a hand to bring about a closer affiliation of all trades, and combine our forces to combat the common enemy of the wage workers[1].

The Brotherhood voted almost unanimously to affiliate with the Structural Building Trades Alliance[2]. On 8 August 1904, permanent organisation was effected at a second meeting held in Indianapolis[3]. The objects of the organisation were definitely formulated, as follows:

To encourage the formation of local central bodies of building tradesmen and the conferring of such power and authority on the several locals of this Alliance as may advance the interests and welfare of the building trades; to adjust trade disputes along practical lines as they arise from time to time between affiliated unions and to create a more harmonious feeling between the employer and the employee.

Recognising the justice of local trade jurisdiction, we aim to guarantee to the various branches of the building trades industry control of such tributary trades as by right legally or technically belong to the main or basic trades in the building line, and to award to each associated national or international union rightful jurisdiction of new and improved methods of construction or installation of any division or subdivision of existing established or basic trades.

With a view of curtailing the effect of sympathetic strikes in this alliance, it is intended to require all affiliated organisations to submit all grievances, whenever practicable, to this alliance and its Board of Governors, and it is especially understood and agreed that all demands for increases in wages or other trade improvement shall be referred to this alliance or its Board of Governors, for general approval, but such method must be solicited by the affiliated national or international union[4].

Here we find the same scheme of control as the American Federation of Labour has so successfully employed. The national unions were to be sovereign and no attempt was to be made to take any control away from them. The formation of this Alliance marked the real beginning on a national scale of what is sometimes called " craft industrialism ". Of course, the fundamental purpose was to get concerted action in the building industry. Some of the smaller unions, as was to be expected, accused the larger unions which had formed the Alliance of wishing to eliminate

[1] *Ibid.*, p. 41.
[2] *Ibid.*, p. 42.
[3] *Ibid.*, p. 40.
[4] *Ibid.*, p. 39.

them. Since this would be one method of obtaining concerted action and of rendering it more powerful, the criticism was doubtless just.

Previous to this time the Brotherhood had steadfastly refused to form any kind of alliance with other unions — with the exception, of course, of membership in the American Federation of Labour. But the Carpenters were prime movers in the formation of the Alliance and pushed it to the utmost. This was probably the peak of the Brotherhood's enthusiasm for co-operation with other unions. Yet in all negotiations regarding the Building Trades Alliance the Brotherhood took pains to assure itself that no control was taken away from the affiliated organisations, that there was to be no compulsion about the submission of jurisdictional disputes, and that the larger unions controlled the organisation.

After four years of rather indifferent success for the Alliance, the question was raised whether it should be officially recognised by the Federation. On 20 March 1908 the Federation granted a charter to the Building Trades Department, and on that day the Structural Building Trades Alliance ceased to exist[1]; although in reality the Department was simply the Alliance continuing under a different name. Twenty national organisations participated in the formation of the new Department, and all but three of them affiliated immediately[2].

The Carpenters, although they did affiliate by a vote of 23,026

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[1] *Proceedings*, B.T.D., 1908, p. 6.

[2] The following table gives the unions affiliating with the Department during the first year of its existence, together with their respective sizes:

Asbestos Workers	800
Bridge and Structural Iron Workers	10,000
Amalgamated Carpenters and Joiners	7,407
United Brotherhood of Carpenters	162,534
Cement Workers	9,000
Electrical Workers	15,227
Elevator Constructors	2,000
Engineers	16,090
Granite Cutters	13,000
Hod Carriers	8,429
Wood, Wire, and Metal Lathers	6,000
Marble Workers	2,358
Amalgamated Sheet Metal Workers	16,000
Painters	60,011
Plasterers	14,339
Plumbers	18,291
Composition Roofers	1,020
Steam and Hot Water Fitters	5,600
Stonecutters	8,731
Tile Layers	1,732
Total	378,569

(*Proceedings*, B.T.D., 1909, p. 24.)

to 8,244[1], did not get behind the Department with any such degree of enthusiasm as had characterised their attitude towards the Alliance. Those who favoured the new Department maintained that the Alliance had had very little influence, and for two reasons: namely, that it had no real power, and that it was too exclusive, on that account lacking the full support of the building industry. Now it was for those two very reasons that the Carpenters had supported the Alliance, i.e. no power was taken from the Brotherhood, and only the larger and stronger unions were affiliated. The Department, on the other hand, included most of the building trades unions, big and little. (The Bricklayers' Union was the only important union which did not affiliate within the first year.)

Real power *was* granted to the Department. Section 58 of the constitution, for example, reads as follows:

> All demands for increased wages or reduction of hours must be submitted to the local council, after approval of the National or International Union interested for its approval, and under no consideration shall a local union or unions of any organisation affiliated with the Department be allowed to inaugurate strikes without the local council's consent[2].

Further power was conferred in the clause:

> Should a conflict in jurisdiction occur, the parties in interest shall hold a joint conference within ninety days, and endeavour to adjust their differences, and if no adjustment has been reached within the prescribed time, the disputed points shall be referred to the next convention of this Department for a decision, and the award shall be binding upon all affiliated organisations.

So the Carpenters objected, in the second place, to this considerable transfer of power to the Department.

Their third objection was concerned with the basis of voting adopted. This was really the fundamental objection, because had the basis advocated by the Carpenters been adopted, they could probably have eliminated the other features regarded by them as undesirable. The basis of representation and voting finally adopted was as follows:

> From national or international unions of less than 4,000 members, one delegate; 4,000 or more, two delegates; 8,000 or more, three delegates; 16,000 or more, four delegates; 32,000 or more, five delegates,

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[1] *Proceedings*, U.B., 1908, p. 210.
[2] *Proceedings*, B.T.D., 1910, p. 8.

and so on. Organisations having seven or more delegates, each such delegate shall on roll call be entitled to two votes[1].

The Carpenters insisted that since the Building Trades Department was a part of the American Federation of Labour, it should adopt the basis used by the Federation:

> Questions may be decided by a show of hands, but if a call of the roll is demanded by one-tenth of the delegates present, each delegate shall cast one vote for every one hundred members or major fraction thereof which he represents, provided that the delegate's union has been affiliated with the Federation for the full fiscal year preceding the convention[2].

A comparison of the number of votes the Brotherhood would be entitled to cast under each of the two systems will make clear the reason for its position. Under the system adopted by the Department the Brotherhood had the right to cast seven out of approximately fifty-seven votes cast by the whole Department, while the Painters, the next largest affiliated union, had the right to cast five. Under the system of the Federation, the Brotherhood would have had 1,620 out of approximately 3,780 votes cast by the whole Department, while the Painters' Union would have had only 600. In other words, under this plan the Brotherhood, with the aid of one strong union like the Painters, could have controlled the Department. Since the Painters have usually been on very friendly terms with the Carpenters, such a combination would not have been at all unlikely. But even without the aid of another union the Brotherhood would practically have controlled the Department.

As a result of these various objections the Brotherhood did not lend the Department its fullest support. Since perhaps the chief purpose of the Department was to adjust jurisdictional difficulties, and since the Brotherhood was at this time engaged in several jurisdictional wars, it was inevitable that it should feel the influence of the Department almost immediately. The Brotherhood's dispute with the Sheet Metal Workers is well known as one of the bitterest disputes in all the history of American trade unionism. As a result of this dispute the Brotherhood has three times been expelled from the Building Trades Department and is at the present time unaffiliated. Prospects for an early settlement of the controversy are not particularly bright.

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[1] Constitution, B.T.D., 1913, sec. 5.
[2] Constitution, A. F. of L., 1923, art. IV, sec. 3.

This controversy and the failure of the Brotherhood, the largest and most powerful of the building trades unions, to support the Department, have unquestionably hampered the development of the Department and of craft industrialism. As an officer of the Painters said: " The Brotherhood of Carpenters has been out of the Building Trades Department on several occasions, and I say it is impossible, at least in a city of 100,000 or less, to successfully conduct a Building Trades Council unless they are a part of it[1]. " The principal function of the Department was to be the settlement of jurisdictional disputes. Despite its many successful settlements, the fact that it has failed where failure meant the disaffection of the Brotherhood certainly raises the question whether or not it has successfully fulfilled its primary function.

Will the Brotherhood come back into the Department and restore it to its former position ? At the present time both parties to the controversy seem to have taken stands which will make reaffiliation impossible. An official of the Building Trades Department says, " My opinion is that they (the Carpenters) will not be re-admitted to membership in the Building Trades Department of the American Federation of Labour, or into the local Building Trades Councils of this country, until they agree to become party to this disciplinary measure which was established to remove jurisdictional disputes[2]. " The Brotherhood, on the other hand, holds firmly to the position that it will not reaffiliate with the Department until that organisation ceases to have relations with the National Board for Jurisdictional Awards. Yet the Brotherhood has twice reaffiliated after severance of relations with the Department, and of course may do so again. A representative of the American Federation of Labour, Mr. James Duncan, was sent to the 1924 convention of the Brotherhood in an effort to bring about an understanding between the two organisations. But even if the Brotherhood were to reaffiliate, the trouble would not necessarily be over. The Brotherhood's habitual method of terminating jurisdictional disputes would seem to indicate that there is little hope of peace until the Sheet Metal Workers have been completely defeated.

Factional division within the Department has prevented its functioning effectively. If it were possible for the affiliated unions

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[1] *Proceedings*, B.T.D., 1921, p. 116.

[2] Letter to the present writer from the Secretary and Business Representative of the Detroit Building Trades Council, November 1924.

to retain their autonomy and at the same time co-operate effectively through the Department in their fight against the employers, the Department would undoubtedly be an exceedingly powerful combination. But jurisdictional difficulties seem for the present to constitute an insurmountable obstacle. Settlement of the present dispute would not prevent the appearance of new ones. Before the Building Trades Department can successfully function, a general solution for jurisdictional difficulties must be evolved. At present no satisfactory solution is in sight. Perhaps the larger unions will follow the Brotherhood's policy of overcoming the weaker unions. Should they do this and eventually assimilate the smaller organisations, the Building Trades Department might be composed of a small group of large and powerful unions. Were this to take place, jurisdictional disputes would not be so likely to arise. The claims of these few unions would be less apt to overlap, and each union, respecting the strength of the others, would think twice before picking a quarrel. A dispute between two of these unions would probably be a long-drawn-out affair, possibly with no ultimate winner. Such a development as we have just imagined would of course increase the importance of craft industrialism. Present indications are that if craft industrialism is to become a powerful factor in the building industry, development will probably take place along the lines just indicated. Most of the building trades unions would have ceased to be strictly craft unions, as indeed many have already.

Although there is at least the possibility that strong craft industrialism may be developed in the building industry, there does not at the present time appear to be evidence to justify any expectation that complete industrialism will eventually prevail. The building trades as a whole may come to realise, as some of them do now, but as the Brotherhood does not, that a strong central organisation would be extremely advantageous to them; that in order to have a central organisation some real power must be given it; and that if power is given to the central organisation, power must be taken away from the unions belonging to it. This assimilation of power may take place gradually until actual control of the building trades is in the hands of the central organisation.

Just now this possibility seems very remote. In the first place, throughout its history the largest building trades unions has steadfastly opposed any such idea, and at the present time is definitely committed to the principle of craft autonomy. In

the second place, there is no indication of anything like complete breaking down of craft lines in the building industry. Some disintegration has taken place, particularly in the carpenter trade, but it must go a long way before reaching anything approaching completeness. So long as these craft lines persist, and so long as many of these unions hold tenaciously to the craft autonomy idea, industrial unionism will not supplant craft unionism in this particular industry.

Although industrial unionism has made little progress in the building industry as a whole, it is claimed that it has impressed itself upon the policy of the United Brotherhood of Carpenters and Joiners. We have seen that the Brotherhood is not at the present time strictly a craft union. According to our definition the strict test of a craft union is that each member of the organisation performs or is capable of performing all the tasks included in the occupation. The purpose of organising on this basis is obviously to bring into the union all the workers who may compete against each other. Upholders of the craft union idea advocate it because they believe that this type of organisation will be most effective in eliminating competition. The principle of the industrial union on the other hand is to bring into the organisation all the workers, skilled and unskilled, who are engaged in turning out and putting on the market a given finished product or series of related products.

It is true that the Brotherhood has extended its jurisdiction to include workers who cannot perform all the tasks belonging to the occupation. But what has been its motive in doing this ? It should be noted that never has the Brotherhood attempted to include *all* the workers turning out a single product ; that it has sought to include only those who compete against each other or who in the future might be competitors — " the carpenter of to-day may be the millman of to-morrow ". In other words, the Brotherhood has been carrying out the craft *idea*, not the industrial idea.

Possibly the Brotherhood has gone too far in carrying out this idea, and has included workers who are not and may never become competitors of the carpenters, and to the extent that it has done so, to that extent it has ceased to be strictly a craft union. But if in its excessive zeal to include all possible competitors the Brotherhood has gone too far, that fact can hardly be interpreted as evidence that it is tending towards industrial unionism. Rather should it be interpreted as a mistake of judgment in putting into

practice the craft principle. It would probably be better if the Brotherhood, before seeking to include a given group of workers, were to wait until it was certain that they were actual competitors of its members. If the Brotherhood goes too fast, its membership will come to have few interests in common. In fact, at the present moment some of its members appear to have too few interests in common with the rest. In so far as common interests are lacking, unity and singleness of purpose are lacking too, and these are essential to the success of any trade union. The point is, however, that if the principle of industrial unionism makes no more headway among the other building trades unions than it is making among the Carpenters, it is hardly likely to be victorious over the craft principle in the near future.

REPORTS AND ENQUIRIES

Filipino Labour in Hawaii

In October 1925 the Director of Labour of the Philippine Islands undertook a personal enquiry into the conditions of labour and employment of Filipinos in the United States Territory of Hawaii. His report, which was submitted to the Governor General of the Philippine Islands, has now been published in the Bulletin of the Philippine Bureau of Labour[1]. It is endorsed by the Philippine Labour Commissioner in Hawaii and by the leaders of the workers' union known as the High Wage Movement, while the secretary of the Hawaiian Sugar Planters' Association, in a letter to the Director, states that he believes the report fully and accurately covers the situation.

Statistics

The Filipinos in Hawaii are estimated to number 39,342. Filipino labour is generally employed in the sugar industry. According to figures for July 1925, of 54,302 labourers employed by members of the Hawaiian Sugar Planters' Association in the four principal islands of Hawaii, 25,085 were Filipinos, while the latest statistics (1926) show 24,992 Filipino labourers so employed, and it is estimated that their dependents number at least 5,200. In addition, some 4,000 Filipinos are employed in the pineapple fields and not less than 5,000 live in Honolulu in various and general casual employments.

Filipino emigration to Hawaii began in 1906, since which date the Filipinos have constantly formed an increasing element in Hawaiian industry. The following tables give the migration figures from 1909 to 1925 as recorded by the Philippine Bureau of Labour :

STATISTICS OF EMIGRATION TO HAWAII

Year	Males	Females	Children	Total
1909 to 1914	18,630	—	—	18,630
1915	1,777	180	193	2,150
1916	1,877	157	180	2,214
1917	2,191	178	229	2,598
1918	2,030	284	447	2,761
1919	3,181	319	297	3,797
1920	3,042	225	187	3,454
1921	5,748	628	438	6,814
1922	7,291	530	362	8,183
1923	4,516	1,800	945	7,261
1924	8,171	1,116	582	9,868
1925	6,099	256	156	6,511
Total	64,553	5,673	4,016	74,424

[1] Philippine Islands. Bureau of Labour : *Labour*, Vol. VII, No. 25. Manila.

STATISTICS OF REPATRIATION TO THE PHILIPPINE ISLANDS

Year	Males	Females	Children	Total
1909 to 1914	159	—	—	159
1915	260	40	47	347
1916	342	64	59	465
1917	568	72	93	733
1918	645	65	131	841
1919	677	104	167	948
1920	1,093	75	113	1,281
1921	1,953	249	503	2,705
1922	1,309	81	203	1,593
1923	1,226	112	158	1,496
1924	1,730	204	261	2,195
1925	2,255	267	316	2,838
Total	12,217	1,333	2,051	15,601

Recruitment

The recruitment of Filipino labourers for employment abroad is covered by the Philippine Act No. 2486 of 1915 as amended by Act No. 3148. By this Act recruitment is permitted provided the recruiting agents obtain licenses from the Director of the Bureau of Labour, which licenses are renewable annually. The Act prescribes the supervision of the terms of agreement by the Director of Labour " whose duty it shall be to permit no contracting of minors under fifteen years, and minors of eighteen years without the written consent of their parents or guardians ". The Act also lays down that the Governor General of the Philippine Islands, with the advice and consent of the Senate, shall appoint a commissioner for service in Hawaii " whose duty it shall be to receive and hear the complaints made by Filipino labourers, to arrange the differences between the latter and their employers, to see to the compliance of the contracts made with said labourers and to look after their interests in general, making every six months a report on the condition thereof to the Governor General ". Lastly, the Act establishes an obligation on the recruiting agents to provide for the repatriation of the labourers after the conclusion of their agreements or in cases of unfitness for work on account of physical incapacity.

Under this Act the Hawaiian Sugar Planters' Association has been authorised to recruit labourers in certain provinces of the Philippine Islands. The Association has a central labour office in Honolulu which is responsible for supervising recruiting, while in the Philippine Islands

it employs agents who are paid the following commission for each labourer recuited :

	Pesos[1]
For every unmarried labourer :	
From both Ilocos	7.00
From Pangasinan	7.00
From Cebu	7.00
From Manila	5.00
For every labourer with his family :	
From any of the points mentioned above	20.00

[1] 2 pesos = 1 American dollar.

The agreement between the Hawaiian Sugar Planters' Association and Filipino emigrants provides that the labourer shall receive :

(1) Free transportation and subsistence from the labourer's home to his place of employment ;

(2) A guarantee of employment for a period of not less than three years at a wage of $20 a month of 26 days for " actual labour performed ";

(3) Free medical attendance for the labourer and his family ;

(4) Free housing and supply of domestic fuel and water ;

(5) Free repatriation at the end of the labourer's three years of service, or should he " while in the performance of the Labour Agreement, through sickness or disease, become permanently incapacitated for work upon a sugar plantation ".

The agreements are in writing. They do not appear to be made before a public authority. The Philippine Bureau of Labour, however, through its Section of Emigrant Labourers to Foreign Countries, inspects the terms of agreement and ascertains whether its provisions are understood by the labourer and have been voluntarily accepted. Moreover, in pursuance of Act No. 2486 as amended by Act No. 3148, the Governor General of the Philippine Islands, with the consent of the Senate, has appointed a labour commissioner with headquarters in Honolulu to supervise the general conditions of employment of Filipino labourers.

Conditions of Employment on Plantations

The agreement between the Filipino emigrants and the Hawaiian Planters' Association is essentially a guarantee by the Association of employment under certain minimum conditions and a guarantee by the labourer of willingness to work on such terms. The actual terms of employment are fixed by agreement between the employer and his labourer in Hawaii.

On plantations the labourers are employed by the day, or on short-term contracts, or on long-term cultivation contracts. For day work the present rate of pay is $1, to which is sometimes added a fixed bonus of 10 per cent. and a profit-sharing bonus based on the price of sugar. For short-term contracts, generally applying to field work such as ploughing, weeding, or cutting cane, the labourer is paid by results

and appears to be able to earn from $2.25 to $2.50 a day. Long-term contracts, however, absorb 90 per cent. of the plantation labour. Under such contracts groups of labourers undertake complete charge of the cultivation of the fields until the harvest. The plantations advance to the labourers $1 a day for each day worked plus a bonus. When the cane is harvested the labourer receives the difference between the amount earned under the contract and the advance already paid him. Under such contracts Filipino labourers earn from $2 to $4 a day, averaging about $2.40.

In addition, some labourers are employed in the plantation sugar mills on " drying " contracts, by which workers receive from $2.20 to $3.27 a day for work between the months of December and August.

With regard to hours of work the agreement the labourer signs with the Hawaiian Sugar Planters' Association provides that a day's labour shall consist of " ten hours actual, faithful, efficient work in the field, or twelve hours actual, faithful, efficient work in the sugar factory, the hours not being continuous, but allowing the necessary time for taking food and rest between suitable periods of labour, and that such work shall be performed by day or by night in field or sugar factory as the proper conduct of the sugar plantation may make necessary. "

Hawaiian legislation prohibits work on Sundays " except work of necessity or mercy ", and also provides that children under the age of 16 years cannot be employed for more than eight hours in any one day or more than forty-eight hours in any one week.

The report of the Director of Labour contains no statistics of the mortality and morbidity of the Filipino labourers. It states however that health conditions are favourable : that although cases of beri-beri, chest infections, and tuberculosis occur, the ailments common in plantations in other places, such as malaria, typhoid, intestinal troubles, etc., are not encountered. It also points out that since it costs the Hawaiian Sugar Planters' Association nearly $200 for every Filipino labourer imported, care is taken that only fit labourers are engaged and that their living conditions in Hawaii are as satisfactory as possible.

Conditions in Towns

The urban Filipino population in Hawaii consists almost entirely of workers who have voluntarily left their employment on plantations. Many are only in casual employment, a situation which has not been helped by the action of the Navy Yard in dismissing 306 as not being citizens of the United States of America and consequently as not eligible for government employment. With regard to the casual worker in the towns the Director of the Bureau of Labour states :

" The conditions of life of the Filipino living in the cities, excepting those who have permanent work, may be said to be difficult and miserable because of their irregular periods of employment. They find hardly enough to sustain themselves and I can affirm that a great number of

them lack the necessities of life. Often they live by securing shelter and aid from their compatriots who are at work and earning their living. These people then become a veritable charge on those who do work and shelter them. It is hard to say why this condition exists, because the sugar plantation companies will give work to any of these labourers who desire to go to plantations and will give them a chance to earn wages every day of the year. However, attractions of the city seem to be the causes which lead so many of this class of Filipinos to this irregular life. "

Conclusions

The general conclusion reached by the Director of Labour is that conditions of employment on the plantations are on the whole satisfactory, whereas, as shown above, the general conditions in which many Filipinos are living in the towns leave much to be desired.

The following passages from the Director's comments on his visit illustrate his views on Hawaii as a field for Filipino employment:

" In studying the labour conditions in this Territory the first thing that calls the attention is the complete liberty that the Filipino labourer enjoys, notwithstanding that he has signed a contract of work in the Philippines. The labourers that arrive in this port are conducted to the Immigration Station of the company composed of various cement buildings, equipped with all the sanitary and hygienic conveniences, wherein the workers are housed until they are conducted to the plantations at which they have to work. Once in these plantations and after having worked some days, some weeks, or months, the labourers can leave the work and change from one plantation to another or leave the work forever in the same, as there are many who leave the plantations, in pursuit of adventure in the cities, especially in Honolulu. There is no law in the Territory of Hawaii obliging the labourer in the performance of the contract entered into by him with the employer. . . .

" This quasi-liberty in the work [the Director is here referring to the absence of irksome supervision] may be affirmed to come from the system implanted in these plantations. The work on ' long contract ' and ' short contract ' which are in force in 95 per cent. of the cases in these plantations and in the mills, by their nature do not require rigorous disciplinary regulations as does the work paid on time basis. This system induces the worker, for his own benefit, to render the greatest amount of effort of which he is capable, through the incentive of a greater return that will accrue to him from this work according to the greater quantity of effort that he may employ. . . .

" It may be stated that the living conditions of the Filipino worker in the plantation are higher than in the Philippines and in some other countries where sugar canes are harvested. The cost of living of the worker, at a glance, appears to be higher here in Hawaii than in the Philippines . . .; after an examination, however, of the prices of the articles that I have selected directly from the stores run by the plantations and in those owned by private individuals, I have come to the following conclusion: If the standard of life of the Filipino worker in this Territory is followed in the Philippines, the cost of living here is lower than in the latter. "

Certain problems, however, require consideration. Of these, in addition to problems normally arising in employment, those of special importance to Filipino labourers in Hawaii are, in the opinion of the Director of Labour, the following :

(1) The possibility of inducing the Filipinos not to abandon plantation work, if this can be effected without prejudice to their liberty.

(2) The possibility of increasing the proportion of women on estates.

(3) The consideration of the position of those Filipino labourers and their families who were contracted for before 1915 when the Philippine Act prescribed that the recruiting agent should grant a free return passage to the labourer after completion of his contract. Although some of these workers have been repatriated as a reward for meritorious service, they appear to have no right to repatriation.

(4) The consideration of the position of labourers discharged from the Navy Yard and by the Public Works Department as not being citizens of the United States of America. To meet this situation it may be necessary to amend the law so excluding foreigners.

The Director also adds that certain of the plantation labourers with families receive daily wages of not more than $1 throughout the year, which is insufficient to meet the cost of living.

Labour Statistics of the United Kingdom

While almost every government publishes each year a statistical year book containing a statistical summary of all branches of government activity during the year, the British Government is, as far as we are aware, the only country in which a special statistical Year Book is published, devoted exclusively to statistics of labour. In the years before the war the Abstract was published at approximately annual intervals, but the issue was suspended in 1915 and has not been resumed subsequently until last year. During the eleven years which have elapsed since the issue of the previous volume (the Seventeenth Abstract) the necessity of a new publication bringing together in one volume a summary of the principal statistics relating to labour became increasingly apparent, and we now have a volume of over 200 pages containing a complete survey of labour conditions during and since the war[1]. In many cases, moreover, the statistics are carried back to 1910, so that a satisfactory comparison of the pre-war and post-war periods can be made.

The statistics are presented in fourteen main sections dealing respectively with : population ; employment and unemployment ; wages and hours of labour ; profit-sharing and labour co-partnership ; whole-

[1] GREAT BRITAIN. MINISTRY OF LABOUR : *Eighteenth Abstract of Labour Statistics of the United Kingdom.* London, H.M. Stationery Office, 1926. Cmd. 2740. 4s.

sale and retail prices and cost of living; industrial disputes (strikes and lockouts); industrial accidents, industrial diseases, and workmen's compensation; employers' and workers' organisations and trades councils; co-operative societies, friendly societies, and building societies; health insurance; old-age pensions; poor-law relief; migration; and cost of building plans approved.

The figures summarised are largely compiled by the Ministry of Labour, and in the majority of cases have already been published in the *Labour Gazette* and in other sources of information, but hitherto unpublished information is included in certain cases and also summaries of statistics relating to labour published by other government departments.

As is well known, no central statistical bureau is in existence in the United Kingdom, and many branches of labour statistics are dealt with by other government departments than the Ministry of Labour. For example, the population censuses of England, Scotland, and Ireland are taken by the respective Registrars-General of these three countries and published separately, and no official statistics have been published covering either Great Britain as a whole, or the United Kingdom. In this volume, however, the statistics are brought together and we have a complete conspectus of the population by occupations, by industries, and by industrial status (employer, employed, etc.) for Great Britain (Ireland not being included, as no census was taken in Ireland in 1921).

Again one of the most valuable sections is that dealing with industrial accidents. The statistics of industrial fatalities are published by at least four government departments. For example, the statistics of accidents in factories and workshops are compiled by the Home Office; in mines and quarries by the Department of Mines; those of seamen and fishermen by the Board of Trade; those on railways by the Ministry of Transport; and those under the "Notice of Accidents Act" (i.e. chiefly construction and repair of railways and tramways) by the Ministry of Transport. These are now all brought together in a summary table. The figures for 1910 and 1924 are shown in the following table:

NUMBER OF PERSONS REPORTED AS KILLED IN INDUSTRIAL ACCIDENTS, 1910 AND 1924

Category	1910	1924
Factories and workshops	1,080	971
Coal mines	1,775	1,201
Metalliferous mines	43	17
Quarries	84	79
Mercantile shipping	1,071	515
Fishing vessels	205	102
Railway service	420	264
"Notice of Accidents Act"	19	24
"Explosives Act"	6	3
Total	4,703	3,176

The figures for the earlier date include Ireland, and those for the later date exclude the Irish Free State. This however has small effect on the totals and it will be seen that there has been an enormous reduction in industrial fatalities in the past fifteen years. It is unfortunate that a similar summary cannot be given for non-fatal accidents. In the previous Abstract a table was included giving the total number of persons injured under the various categories set out above. It was pointed out, however, that the figures were not comparable owing to the differences in the requirements of the various Acts as regards the classes of non-fatal accidents required to be reported. This lack of comparability has no doubt increased, and probably accounts for the total exclusion of all reference to non-fatal accidents in the present issue.

British statistics of unemployment are admittedly without equal in any other country. Information has been available monthly since December 1920 concerning unemployment for almost the whole industrial population of twelve million people. Even before this date considerable information was available for most of the principal industries, and in this section of the report a complete survey is given of the fluctuations in unemployment during the past fifteen years, month by month. A further valuable table in this section sets out the rates of contributions provided for under the successive Unemployment Insurance Acts. No less than seventeen Acts, mostly passed since 1920, are listed, setting out in tabular form the various changes which have been introduced either in the scale of weekly contributions, the rate of benefit, the waiting period, or the limitations on the payment of benefit.

The section devoted to wages contains a complete survey of the time rates of wages and hours of labour in the important occupations for 31 December of each year from 1914 to 1925, compared with those in force in July 1914. The following section gives detailed tables showing changes in retail prices and the cost of living. Certain new and hitherto unpublished information is given, so that the movement in the cost of living and in each of the several groups of items included therein is now published for each month from January 1915 to December 1925. No attempt is made to compare the movement of wages with the fluctuations in the cost of living; in fact, throughout the volume the object is merely to present the statistics available and not to compare them with one another or analyse their significance. In the following table, however, we have brought together the general figures showing the movement of wages and those showing the movement of the cost of living. The wage figures are intended to measure " the estimated average percentage increase in the weekly full-time rates of wages ", and the cost-of-living figures are the " average percentage increase in the cost of maintaining unchanged a standard budget for 1914 ".

PERCENTAGE INCREASES OVER 1914 IN WAGES AND COST OF LIVING

Date	Wages index	Cost-of-living index
31 December 1914	1–2	10–15
„ „ 1915	10–15	35
„ „ 1916	20–25	65
„ „ 1917	55–60	85–90
„ „ 1918	95–100	120
„ „ 1919	115–120	125
„ „ 1920	170–180	165
„ „ 1921	110–115	92
„ „ 1922	70–75	78
„ „ 1923	65–70	77
„ „ 1924	70–75	80
„ „ 1925	75	77

A fairer comparison would be to take the average cost-of-living index number for a period of several months so as to avoid the temporary fluctuations. The figures themselves are however sufficient to show that on the whole real wages have been maintained at their pre-war level, although during the early years there was a slight decrease in the level of real wages.

The section dealing with industrial disputes involving stoppages of work gives very complete statistics of the number of disputes, the number of workpeople involved, and the number of working days lost, together with classification by industry, causes or objects, results, methods of settlement, and duration. The figures show that during the sixteen years 1910-1925 almost 300 million working days were lost by strikes and lockouts, i.e. over 18 million working days per annum. This figure seems at first sight to be very large, but when it is remembered that the figures relate to an industrial population of over 12 million persons, it will be seen that the average number of days lost per worker is about 1.5 per annum, or considerably less than 1 per cent. of the total working time. Comparison with the statistics of unemployment show that the time lost by trade disputes is considerably less than the time lost through unemployment. No statistics are available showing the time lost through sickness and accident, but it cannot be denied that the amount of time lost through these two causes together is also much greater than time lost by strikes and lockouts.

The section dealing with national health insurance is perhaps one of the least satisfactory in the volume. The national scheme of health insurance covers, as in the case of unemployment insurance, almost the whole working population, but apart from the number of persons entitled to benefit, the receipts (from contributions, etc.), and the expenditure on different classes of benefit (sickness, disablement, maternity, etc.), no information is available as to duration of sickness or its incidence by trades and occupations.

The volume can be warmly commended to all interested in social and economic conditions.

Rural Industries in Great Britain[1]

In order to ascertain whether the development of rural industries would help to make rural life more attractive and thus to stem the rural exodus, an investigation was undertaken in 1920 by the Agricultural Economics Research Institute, Oxford, at the suggestion of the Development Commissioners and the Ministry of Agriculture.

The terms of reference to those responsible for the work were to consider :

(1) the existing rural industries and the causes of their establishment in particular localities, such as easy access to local supplies of raw material and labour, and local markets for the finished products;

(2) the various types of organisation in these industries, such as small factories and workrooms or individual production, organisations for the purchase of raw materials or the sale of finished products. Educational facilities and the possibilities of technical instruction were also to be borne in mind in this connection;

(3) the economic and social effects of rural industries, the conditions of labour attendant on them, the connection between rural industrial and agricultural employment, and how far such industries tend to depress or to ameliorate the lot of the agricultural worker;

(4) the prospects of development of existing industries and of the introduction of new enterprises, or of the resuscitation of former industries now dead or in a state of suspended animation. In this connection the existence of competition, both urban and foreign, was to be borne in mind, and consideration given to the conditions under which rural industries can compete with urban production.

This investigation, which has extended over three years, is probably the most comprehensive study which has been undertaken into rural industries in Europe for many years. The survey was carried out county by county and the results of the investigation were embodied in reports dealing with the industries of particular localities. From these interim reports (which are available in manuscript, for consultation, at Oxford) the final reports have been compiled, dealing with the various industries separately as they occur throughout the country, but keeping note of the geographical distribution of each industry as originally found on the basis of the county surveys. For convenience the reports, which are in process of being published by the Oxford University Press, have been collected together in four volumes, namely :

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[1] Agricultural Economics Research Institute : *The Rural Industries of England and Wales.* I. *Timber and Underwood Industries and some Village Workshops.* xix + 239 pp., illus. II. *Osier-Growing and Basketry and some Rural Factories.* By H. E. FitzRandolph and M. Doriel Hay. A Survey made on behalf of the Agricultural Economics Research Institution, Oxford. Oxford, Clarendon Press, 1926.

Development Commission : *Fifteenth and Sixteenth Reports of the Development Commissioners for the years ended 31 March 1925 and 1926.* London, H.M. Stationery Office, 1925 and 1926. 198 and 157 pp.

Timber and Underwood Industries and some Village Workshops; Osier Growing and Basketry, and some Rural Factories; Decorative Crafts and Rural Potteries; and Rural Industries in Wales.

The first and second volumes have appeared. This investigation has been undertaken in a purely scientific spirit and is free from the sentiment which is so often found mixed up with enquiries into rural industries.

The survey shows that certain industries seem destined to die out in their rural form, owing to the advantages obtained by large-scale production. For instance, the making of cheap furniture can be undertaken in factories much more easily than by rural craftsmen, who very often have no, or very little, mechanical power at their command. On the other hand, the rural worker is able to hold his own in the production of furniture of better workmanship and design. In clog-making it seems probable that factory competition will kill the hand-made clog, although the hand-made clog is more comfortable than the machine-made. The future of the rural toy industry seems also to depend on the production of toys made with good workmanship. Toys of the cheapest kind can be made at a lower price abroad, and experience has proved that in this industry also it is the production of toys notable for verisimilitude of proportion and design that matters. For toys of this kind a good market exists. The future for saddlers seems uncertain, owing to the introduction of machinery and decrease in the demand for saddles, etc. The smithing industry seems one of the most promising if the smith is an enterprising man, willing and able to undertake ornamental wrought-iron work in his slack time. The market for wrought-iron gates, door latches, knockers, fire irons, etc. seems pretty stable.

In fact, it is clear that the day of the rural craft as a merely utility craft is over; but it *can* survive if it is willing to change its character to produce special (usually rather distinctive or beautiful) work for an entirely specialised market. The difficulty is not to confuse mentally the creation of specialised wares with unbusinesslike habits and uneconomic production. Organisation is a very crying need. Cases are mentioned of craftsmen being unable to find a market for their goods whilst a demand has existed for them of which they have been unaware. Book-keeping also seems to be of a very elementary nature, especially among wheelwrights. Estimates for a given piece of work are often based on pure guesswork, the wheelwright having no idea as to whether the price he has quoted will yield him a profit or a loss.

A few years ago the state of disorganisation in rural industries was so acute that some central consulting and advice bureau was felt to be essential if the rural crafts were to be saved. The Development Commissioners therefore established a Rural Industries Bureau as an advisory agency. In 1924-1925 a grant of £3,530 was made to the Bureau. The Technical Adviser of the Bureau and his staff assist enquirers by letters, pamphlets, visits, the production of designs and models dealing with mechanical problems, and suggestions for side lines in various industries. Here it is to observed that the extinction of traditional designs in Great Britain has been very complete. Applied art has

died out in rural districts and there is no survival, as there is in some countries, of beautiful designs and patterns.

The work of the Bureau falls into two divisions : (1) general investigations, and (2) practical action to improve rural industries. Investigation work has been carried out both on industries where a possibility of expansion has been thought to exist, and also with a view to starting new industries. The first practical action undertaken has been to organise the market for rural industries by means of a register. A register of shops desiring to be put in touch with craftsmen in the country has been issued, together with a list of craft exhibitions. This register now contains the names of approximately 416 individual workers or industries, representing in all about 1,000 full-time, and 500 or more part-time, workers. It includes blacksmiths doing wrought-iron work, leather workers, hand weavers, basketry, rush, and raffia workers, furniture makers and wood workers, toy makers, potters, metal workers, stone carvers, etc. An increasing number of enquiries is being received from retail shops, architects, and private individuals desiring to be put into touch with workers on the Bureau's register. This register should be a valuable contribution towards market organisation, and towards saving the rural crafts. It is important to realise that the effect of the register will be to substitute a national for the old local markets. If this cannot save the rural crafts it is difficult to see what will.

Some remarks may be added on a special action taken by a local body, the Kent Community Council. With some help from the Development Commissioners the Kent enquiry was carried through quickly and efficiently and has resulted in steps being taken for the better organisation of some industries. In 1925 a guarantee of £500, available for two years, was authorised on the application of the Kent Rural Industries Co-operative Society to enable blackmiths, wheelwrights, and other village craftsmen to acquire modern plant and equipment on the instalment system, the enquiry into rural industries by the Kent Community Council having shown that some credit of the kind was essential if village craftsmen were to hold their own or improve their position. The scheme has been welcomed by the village artificers and is arousing interest in other parts of the country. In fact, this idea of credit facilities on a small scale is perhaps the next idea to be developed in the organising of rural industries.

It is certain that rural industries, if they are to survive, will have to acquire some small power machinery. If they do that, they might even resume their function of utility producers, as is proved by the success of the two blacksmiths' demonstration vans acquired by the Ministry of Agriculture in 1924, which have toured Oxfordshire and have had a considerable success in reviving among village blacksmiths a trade in the repair of agricultural machinery.

And of course, finally, there is the need for technical training, good technical training, given under conditions such as will really appeal to the modern boy. In Bristol and Leicester schemes are being developed for joint responsibility between employers and the technical and art

schools with regard to training, but the difficulties of getting art and technical education to percolate to the villages are great. In this connection the influence of general elementary education is interesting. Long terms of apprenticeship as a method of learning a craft really date back to a period before elementary education was compulsory throughout the country. Now that general education is compulsory, the boys and girls have become accustomed to more scientific teaching, and the rough-and-ready methods of the old craftsman, who often has a most profound contempt for modern education, are distasteful to them. Undoubtedly, long terms of apprenticeship could be dispensed with if more scientific methods of teaching were adopted. But the rural craftsman is, as a rule, a very poor teacher.

The influence of education is also noticeable in the desire of young people for educated companionship : quite frequently the young man feels compelled to leave the village and to go to the town in order to get such companionship as will satisfy him. He is not content to live as his father lived before him, nor is he willing to work all the days of his life tucked away in a small workshop with his father. Education has given him a taste for a fuller and more comprehensive life.

It follows that the survival, or otherwise, of rural crafts depends on the vigour or decay of the general life of the countryside.

Expenditure on Unemployment Relief in Sweden

It will be recalled that Sweden has no system of public unemployment insurance[1]. Several trade unions have organised unemployment funds, but this insurance is based solely on the contributions of the members themselves. A proposal for the introduction of a state-subsidised system of unemployment insurance (based on the report of the Social Insurance Commission of December 1922) was without result, and a Bill providing for a similar system of unemployment insurance, combined with a system of public works, which the then Social-Democratic Government was expected to introduce during the 1926 Session[2], was not laid before Parliament owing to the parliamentary situation. A Government Committee, including representatives of different political parties, is continuing the study of this problem and has sent out delegations to study the working of the systems and the results achieved in other countries. According to a statement by Mr. Pettersson, the present Liberal Minister of Social Affairs, the report of the Committee is not, however, expected to be ready in time to serve as a basis for a Government Bill during the present Session of the Riksdag.

The measures for the relief of unemployment taken by the author-

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[1] Cf. *International Labour Review*, Vol. IX, No. 2, Feb. 1924 : " Social Insurance in Sweden ", by Dr. Emil LIEDSTRAND, p. 193.

[2] *Ibid.* Cf. also *Industrial and Labour Information*, Vol. XVI, No. 8, p. 399.

ities in Sweden during the last ten years aimed in the first place at carefully preserving the opportunities for work available in the open market by establishing close co-operation between the municipally appointed unemployment committees and the public employment exchanges. Where work was not available public relief works were organised, as a rule productive works such as road building and forestry schemes, which in general did not interfere with the normal demand for labour. In order to prevent all competition between these works and employment in the open market, the wages on all state relief works, as well as on those organised by the municipal authorities with state contributions, were fixed at about 25 per cent. less than the rates paid to unskilled workers in the open market. In some communes, however, this principle was not observed for the wages paid on the commune's own relief works, that is to say, those without state subsidies.

Where it was impossible to provide a sufficient number of jobs on relief works, a system of cash relief was started, as also in certain other cases, for instance, where there was a danger of reducing the skill in the old occupation. Finally, unemployment relief was sometimes granted in the form of rent allowances. The maximum cash relief per week was fixed in relation to unskilled workers' wages, and state subsidies were granted in such conditions up to 50 per cent., and sometimes more, of the amount of relief. Any person who refused relief work or reasonably paid work in the open market forfeited his right to unemployment benefit.

The payment of unemployment benefit with state subsidies ceased on 1 September 1923, but some communes have continued the payment of cash benefit out of their own resources. In order to evade the existing regulations which prohibit unsupervised communal relief, this benefit is granted in the form of poor relief, although in most cases the obligation to repay is withdrawn. These special measures were at first limited to a few places where the organisation of relief works met with special difficulty for local reasons (in general it may be said that Sweden offers unusual opportunities for such productive works). But of late there has been a tendency to extend them, which in bourgeois quarters is regarded with anxiety as an attempt to undermine the largely successful unemployment policy of the last few years.

The state measures for unemployment relief were directed by the State Unemployment Commission, which was appointed shortly after the outbreak of the war, with the assistance of the provincial committees and communal unemployment committees. The technical management of the State relief works was entrusted to two so-called labour directorates, one for northern and one for southern Sweden.

At the request of the Government, the Commission is now drawing up an account of its work during the ten-year period 1 August 1914 to 31 June 1924. Certain preliminary data from this report have already been published, which may be considered of general interest. Thus the last number of the Swedish official Labour Gazette[1] contains an account of the results of a special investigation into the expenditure incurred

[1] *Sociala Meddelanden*, No. 12, 1926.

by the communes during the above period in consequence of the measures for unemployment relief. Questionnaires were sent to all the communes in the country and replies were received from the large majority. It was found that 102 towns and 977 rural communes had undertaken various measures involving direct expenditure for the relief of the unemployed during the period covered. There were only 9 small towns in which unemployment did not lead to direct expenditure.

Specially appointed unemployment committees were responsible for the relief work in 890 communes, excluding those which, although they appointed unemployment authorities, found no need of using them. In a considerable number of communes the financial committees and communal boards acted as unemployment authorities.

The total expenditure of the communes on unemployment relief during the ten-year period was 98.6 million kronor, of which 25.5 million kronor related to rural communes and 73.1 million to towns. This total, however, includes state subsidies to the amount of 22.5 million kronor and provincial subsidies to the amount of 4.3 million kronor. The figures for the separate years are given in the table below :

EXPENDITURE OF THE COMMUNES ON UNEMPLOYMENT RELIEF, 1914-1924

Year	Total	Subsidies included in total	
		State	Provincial
	kr.	kr.	kr.
1914 (4 months)	247,111	832	2,125
1915	1,426,143	374,673	64,983
1916	406,065	51,807	77,634
1917	523,209	105,791	6,136
1918	4,202,609	1,806,164	29,283
1919	4,213,068	1,345,132	25,301
1920	2,278,695	148,844	18,190
1921	29,491,693	5,788,716	856,477
1922	35,809,492	10,769,283	2,106,793
1923	15,384,713	1,970,419	991,468
1924 (6 months)	4,630,332	162,022	150,712
Total	98,613,130	22,523,683	4,329,102

Thus the net outlay of the communes on unemployment relief during the ten-year period was 71.8 million kronor. During this same period the expenditure of the state on its own measures for unemployment relief was 158.87 million kronor (of which about 100 million kronor was on relief works, 15 million on state contracts in the engineering industry, and 22 million on contributions to the communes). It thus appears that the approximate total expenditure of the state, the provinces, and the communes on the relief of unemployment in Sweden during the period 1 August 1914 to 30 June 1924 was 230 million kronor. Information for the period after 1 July 1924 is not yet available.

As regards the purposes on which the communes spent this money, in the first place the sum of 12.9 million kronor was contributed to

various kinds of relief works run by the state. Their expenditure on their own communal relief works was 36.5 million kronor. Finally, their expenditure on relief works in respect of which they received state subsidies was 1.8 million kronor, the subsidies amounting to 255,000 kronor.

The largest item of expenditure was that of unemployment benefit, amounting to 41.7 million kronor, although about half was reimbursed out of state subsidies. The greater part of this expenditure was incurred in 1921 and 1922, when the rapid increase in unemployment and the impossibility of starting public relief works quickly and widely enough made the payment of cash benefit on a large scale necessary. Since 1 September 1923, however, no state-subsidised cash benefit has been paid, all state relief being confined to providing employment for the unemployed at relief works, preferably in the state forests.

The total cost of the rent allowances, which were started in 1921 and have now almost been discontinued, was 2.3 million kronor, the state subsidy being one million kronor.

In various localities special courses of training were organised for unemployed young persons. The total cost of these courses was about 390,000 kronor, but about half this sum was refunded by the state.

The total administrative expenditure incurred by the communes in respect of unemployment relief was 2.3 million kronor. No state subsidies were received in respect of this expenditure, nor in respect of the miscellaneous expenditure of about 500,000 kronor.

As might be expected, the cost of unemployment relief was highest in the city of Stockholm and in the provinces in which the largest towns are situated. The mainly agricultural provinces, on the other hand, obviously had the lowest expenditure.

Industrial Home Work in the United States

A summary, together with extracts, is given below of a report made at the annual meeting of the Association of Governmental Labour Officials of the United States and Canada, Columbus, Ohio, 8 June 1926, by its Committee on Industrial Homework[1]. This Committee was appointed in February 1926 in accordance with the following Resolution

[1] The membership of the Committee was as follows: Mary ANDERSON, Director, Women's Bureau, United States Department of Labour; Charlotte CARR, Director, Bureau of Women and Children, Pennsylvania Department of Labour and Industry; Ethel M. JOHNSON, Assistant Commissioner, Massachusetts Department of Labour and Industries; Nelle SWARTZ, Director, Bureau of Women in Industry, New York Department of Labour; Charles H. WEEKS, Deputy Commissioner, New Jersey Department of Labour; E. N. MATTHEWS, Director, Industrial Division, Children's Bureau, United States Department of Labour, *Chairman*.

adopted at the Convention of the Association held in Salt Lake City in August 1925 :

Resolved that a committee be appointed to look into the question of industrial home work — the extent to which such work is conducted in the various States and the methods being taken to deal with the situation ; such a study to be made in co-operation with the U.S. Children's Bureau and the U.S. Women's Bureau and report to be made to the next convention of the Association.

Owing to the brief time available, it had not been possible for the Committee to undertake a detailed research. Information had been obtained by means of a short questionnaire addressed to the labour officials of 45 States. Additional information was obtained from the United States Department of Labour, Women's Bureau, through its Bulletin No. 40, *State Laws affecting Working Women,* and from the Children's Bureau. Attention was particularly directed to the collection of data on methods of administering home work laws in the various States and in foreign countries and to the effectiveness of the methods in use. Certain other enquiries were conducted, especially among the national organisations and research agencies likely to be interested in the subject.

The information obtained by the Committee indicated that except for sparsely populated agricultural and mining States, industrial home work of some sort was to be found in almost every part of the United States. Specific information as to the extent, kinds, and conditions of home work was, however, not available in most of the States, and complete information on these points could not be said to be available for any State.

Replies to the questionnaire and an examination of the laws of the various States showed that 14 States had some sort of regulation of industrial home work. In general these regulations relate to cleanliness and sanitary conditions of the workplace, to freedom from infectious and contagious diseases, and (less commonly) to adequate lighting and ventilation and the number of cubic feet of air space to be allowed per worker. In most of the States a license or permit must be obtained from the State Authority enforcing the labour laws. In some States these licenses must be obtained by the worker, while in others they must be obtained by the employer or person giving out home work. In a number of States the employer is required to keep a register of the persons to whom home work is given by him containing their names and addresses, and in some States certain other information. It is usually stated that this register shall be accessible to the inspector.

The replies to questions included in the questionnaire as to the effectiveness of the regulations regarding industrial home work and suggestions as to the most effective type of regulation, were regarded by the Committee as on the whole disappointing. The most significant information yielded was that no uniformity of opinion existed as to the best method of regulation, even where there was a recognised home work problem and where regulation existed.

The information available led the Committee to the following conclusions in regard to the two matters which it was specially instructed

to enquire into, namely, the extent of the home work problem and the methods in operation for dealing with the problem.

First : as to the information available regarding the extent and conditions of industrial home work in the United States at the present time :

(1) Industrial homework is without question a live problem in many sections of the United States.
(2) In most localities in which it has arisen, serious evils have been found to follow from its practice.
(3) However, information as to its prevalence, the numbers and kinds of workers engaged in it, the conditions under which the work is done, the industries affected, and the inter-State aspects of the problem is either lacking entirely or admittedly inadequate in many sections of the country, even in States where the existence of home work (at least in some industries) is known to the State authorities, and even in States where the existence of a home work problem has been recognised in the enactment of prohibitory or regulatory legislation.
(4) Therefore, no complete report as to the extent and conditions of home work in this country can be made, and further investigation on the subject is urged.

Second : as to the methods in effect of dealing with the situation :

(1) Some system of legal regulation is unquestionably necessary, at least in States where the industrial home work problem exists.
(2) Certain minimum standards of legal regulation may be agreed upon on the basis of the experience of the States up to the present time.
(3) However, no general agreement among State officials and other authorities appears to exist as to the most effective programme for the correction of the evils of industrial home work, and no information is available that can enable the Committee to judge conclusively as to the relative effectiveness of the different methods in operation.

Recommendations

The Report of the Committee placed chief emphasis on the need for further information as to the facts of industrial home work, and as to effective methods of correcting the evils found to exist where home work is undertaken on any extensive scale, and the Committee put forward as its chief recommendation a continuation of the study of the home work problem by the Association. The Committee was of opinion that the facts regarding the extent and conditions of factory work in the home should be obtained as far as possible from the labour officials of the different States, each working independently in his own State but preferably following a common outline plan of study. The Committee believed that the study of the comparative effectiveness of the different types of home work regulations should be undertaken

as a general enquiry by some research organisation, independent of the membership of the Association. A committee of the Association should be appointed to undertake the necessary negotiations for such a study, and to serve as an intermediary between the Association and the research agency during the conduct of the enquiry. A committee appointed for this purpose could also serve as an advisory board and clearing house of information in connection with investigations, as suggested above, undertaken by State officials as to the extent and conditions of home work in their several States.

Although the members of the Committee felt that the facts at their command at the present time were insufficient to enable them to recommend a complete legislative programme, certain minimum standards of regulation operative in some States were agreed upon by all members of the Committee as desirable, at least pending the study of regulatory machinery that is necessary before a more considered programme could be recommended.

Before enumerating the standards agreed upon, the Committee made mention of two methods of control not covered by these recommendations.

First, although certain members of the Committee were of the opinion, many times expressed by numerous governmental and other authorities as the result of careful study of the problem, that the cure of the evils of home work could probably be achieved only through the legal prohibition of all kinds of factory work in the home, the Committee as a whole was of the opinion that no stand could be taken on this point without a more thorough knowledge of the effectiveness of less drastic methods of control. Moreover, the great difficulty of securing the passage of prohibitory legislation makes necessary for practical reasons the consideration of other and more easily obtainable measures.

Second, the application of minimum wage legislation to industrial home work, regarded in countries in which it has been tried as a relatively successful measure of regulation, has not been given serious consideration by the Committee as a method of controlling the home work problem in the United States at the present time, because of the present constitutional status of legislation of this kind.

The following are the minimum standards of regulation unanimously agreed upon by the Committee :

(1) Absolute prohibition of the manufacture of certain kinds of articles in the home is necessary for sanitary reasons, either for the protection of the consumer, as in the case of food stuffs, certain articles of clothing, etc., or for the protection of the worker in cases where poisonous or otherwise injurious materials are used in manufacture of the goods concerned.

(2) All the labour laws of a State, including legislation regulating child labour and the hours of labour of women, workmen's compensation or employers' liability laws, minimum wage legislation, and the legal standards for safety, sanitation, and working conditions, should apply to industrial work of all kinds done in the home as well as to that done in the factory.

(3) Responsibility for full compliance with such laws, and with

any regulations applicable to home work, should be placed upon the manufacturer for whom the work is done, irrespective of whether the work is given out by him directly or through another person. He should be required to keep on file a register containing the names, addresses, and ages of all home workers employed on work for him, the kind and amount of work done, the rate of pay and actual wages paid, together with such additional information as the Department of Labour may require, accessible to inspectors of the Department, and should send a copy of this register periodically to the Labour Department. No employer or contractor should be permitted to give out home work who is not licensed to do so by the State Department of Labour, and no employer should be licensed to give out home work who does not enforce compliance with all the requirements of the labour law applicable to home work in the homes in which work is done for him.

(4) Adequate authority for the enforcement of all laws applying to factory work done in homes should be given by law to the State Labour Department and an adequate inspection staff should be provided for this work. Periodic inspections of places where home work is done should be made. It is believed that in States where the industrial home work problem is an extensive one, the appointment of a special staff of inspectors who will devote their entire time to the enforcement of the regulations applicable to home work will result in greater efficiency of administration than when the work is handled by regular factory inspectors assigned also to other duties.

(5) Local boards of health shall notify the State Labour Department daily of all cases of communicable disease occurring in the locality over which they have jurisdiction, giving the name and address of the person suffering from the disease, and the State Labour Department shall report immediately to employers the names and addresses of all home workers registered as employed by them in whose homes such disease exists.

(6) A tag or label giving the name and address of the manufacturer, the nature and quantity of the goods, and the name and address of the worker or workers to whom the goods are given out to be worked on, shall be placed upon each unit of delivery or shipment to a home worker, and this label shall not be removed until the work has been completed and returned to the employer.

(7) The members of the Committee did not feel sufficiently certain of the effectiveness of the different systems now in operation in a number of States whereby individual families or residences are licensed for home work by the State Labour Department to recommend the adoption of a specific method of regulation of this type. The Committee is, however, of the opinion that this machinery should certainly be retained by the States in which it is now operating until such time as more effective methods of enforcement have been worked out by these States.

The meeting of the Association held in June 1926 at Columbus, Ohio, heard the report of the Committee without prejudice, and ordered it to be printed in its proceedings, but asked the Committee to continue its studies and to make further enquiries as to the extent of home work so far as ascertainable from documentary material and readily available sources.

STATISTICS

Employment and Prices

In the tables below are given for various countries the most recent statistics of employment and unemployment and of the cost of living and retail prices in comparison with those for previous dates.

Employment and Unemployment

Table I giving unemployment statistics shows for certain countries the percentage of workers unemployed. In some cases these percentages are based on data compiled by the trade unions in respect of their members, while in other cases they refer to the workers covered by unemployment insurance laws. For some countries for which no such data are available information is given as to the numbers registered at various dates at the employment exchanges as unemployed or the number of unemployed workers who have received assistance. Table II gives index numbers of employment for certain countries.

In the *Review* for July 1924 and later months an outline was given of the methods by which the statistics given in the tables are compiled, together with particulars of the original sources in which they are published.

TABLE I. STATISTICS OF UNEMPLOYMENT

Date (end of month)	Germany					Australia		Belgium			
	Trade unionists				Number unemployed in receipt of benefit	Trade unionists		Unemployment insurance societies			
	Wholly unemployed		Partially unemployed			Number unemployed	Per cent.	Wholly unemployed		Partially unemployed	
	Number	Per cent.	Number	Per cent.				Number	Per cent.	Number	Per cent.
1926											
Jan.	815,434	22.6	818,637	22.6	2,030,646	*	*	16,159	2.7	32,017	5.4
Feb.	786,263	22.0	771,405	21.6	2,055,928	*	*	9,616	1.6	18,209	3.1
March	757,312	21.4	736,649	21.7	1,942,011	34,161	8.2	8,489	1.4	16,573	2.8
April	655,537	18.6	643,993	19.1	1,781,152	*	*	7,395	1.2	11,803	2.0
May	639,751	18.1	641,780	18.2	1,744,126	*	*	6,075	1.1	12,643	2.1
June	627,196	18.1	591,536	17.1	1,740,754	24,920	6.7	5,200	0.9	13,148	2.2
July	599,617	17.7	563,823	16.6	1,652,281	*	*	5,158	0.9	10,233	1.7
Aug.	567,541	16.7	511,685	15.0	1,548,138	*	*	7,268	1.2	16,530	2.8
Sept.	513,864	15.2	427,380	12.7	1,394,062	32,871	7.6	6,818	1.1	14,821	2.5
Oct.	476,952	14.2	343,303	10.2	1 308,293	*	*	8,088	1.4	13,295	2.2
Nov.	484,978	14.2	284,774	8.3	1,369,768	*	*	8,217	1.4	14,907	2.5
Dec.	572,653	16.7	249,628	7.3	1,748,597	25,351	15.7	15,804	2.6	17,889	3.0
1927											
Jan.	585,687	16.5	234,368	6.6	1,827,200	*	*	15,920	2.5	31,288	5.1
Feb.	559,621	15.5	210,724	5.8	1,695,899	*	*	—	—	—	—
Number on which latest percentages are based	3,064,388				*	441,560		608,457			

The sign * signifies "no figures published" The sign — signifies "figures not yet received".

TABLE I *(cont.)*

Date (end of month)	Austria	Canada		Denmark		Esthonia	Finland	France
	Compulsory insurance	Trade unionists		Trade union unemployment funds				
	Number unemployed in receipt of benefit	Number unemployed	Per cent.	Number unemployed	Per cent.	Number unemployed remaining on live register	Number of unemployed registered	Number unemployed in receipt of benefit
1926								
Jan.	231,361	11,906[1]	8.1	81,100[1]	30.1	3,543	3,832	547
Feb.	228,763	11,993[1]	8.1	74,100[1]	27.5	2,444	3,462	713
March	202,394	11,069	7.3	57,700[1]	21.4	1,916	2,222	543
April	173,115	11,093	7.3	44,700[1]	16.6	2,249	1,961	442
May	154,821	7,442	4.9	39,900[1]	14.8	1,839	1,273	386
June	150,981	5,965	4.1	42,600[1]	15.8	1,051	924	489
July	152,495	3,226[1]	2.3	45,800[1]	17.0	893	949	342
Aug.	151,054	3,384[1]	2.5	46,900[1]	17.0	731	1,212	369
Sept.	148,111	4,837	3.3	45,300[1]	16.5	811	1,325	335
Oct.	151,183	3,929[1]	2.6	49,800[1]	18.5	2,309	1,813	429
Nov.	168,757	7,032[1]	4.7	59,800[1]	22.6	4,157	2,330	571
Dec.	205,350	9,349	5.9	88,700[1]	32.7	3,807	2,172	17,178
1927								
Jan.	235,464	—	6.4	87,100[1]	32.1	4,841	3,633	52,275
Feb.	244,257	—	—	87,100[1]	31.7	—	3,052	80,941
Number on which latest percentages are based	•	157,701		274,653		•	•	•

TABLE I *(cont.)*

Date (end of month)	Great Britain and Northern Ireland				Hungary		Irish Free State		Italy	
	Trade unionists		Compulsory insurance		Trade unionists		Compulsory insurance		Number of unemployed registered	
	Number unemployed	Per cent.	Number unemployed	Per cent.	Number unemployed	Per cent.	Number unemployed	Per cent.	Wholly unempl.	Partially unempl.
1926										
Jan.	103,051	10.6	1,317,535	11.0	28,378	17.4	38,161	15.0	156,139	9,284
Feb.	101,870	10.4	1,247,823	10.4	29,135	18.7	38,670	15.2	125,803	8,016
March	99,271	10.1	1,171,136	9.8	29,218	19.1	34,331	13.5	109,471	8,333
April	•	10.0	1,093,829	9.1	28,776	18.8	32,935	13.0	98,216	6,793
May	109,947	13.2	1,719,369	14.3	27,598	18.5	32,668	12.8	98,490	8,600
June	107,597	12.9	1,751,133	14.6	25,558	16.7	31,248	12.3	83,264	6,650
July	108,030	13.2	1,737 260	14.6	24,041	15.7	27,740	11.3	79,678	26,756
Aug.	110,520	13.3	1,684,507	14.2	22,756	15.0	25,390	10.3	83,090	26,634
Sept.	112,782	13.6	1,648,322	13.9	19,849	13.1	25,063	10.2	89,434	14,519
Oct.	112,195	13.6	1,636,886	13.6	18,680	12.4	25,499	10.4	112,922	10 839
Nov.	108,202	13.2	1,630,142	13.5	18,576	12.3	26,984	11.0	148,821	6 618
Dec.	97,671	12.2	1,431,840	11.9	20,712	13.0	27,014	11.0	181,493	12,216
1927										
Jan.	•	•	1,451,103	12.1	20,420	13.4	29,046	11.8	225,346	63,716
Feb.	•	•	1,315,444	10.9	19,542	12,8	28,704	11.7	259,059	53.113
Number on which latest percentages are based	801,878		12,041,000		153,000		246,134		•	

[1] Approximate figures. [2] Provisional figures.
The sign • signifies " no figures published ". The sign — signifies " figures not yet received ".

TABLE I (*cont.*)

Date (end of month)	Latvia	Norway		New Zealand		Netherlands	
	Number unemployed remaining on live register	Trade unionists (10 unions)		Trade unionists		Unemployment insurance societies	
		Number unemployed	Per cent.	Number unemployed	Per cent.	Number unemployed	Per cent.
1926							
Jan.	4,990	9,066	25.5	*	*	49,633	17 7
Feb.	4,702	8,923	25.0	2,357	5.0	28,999	10.5
March	3,659	9,237	25.9	*	*	22,338	7.9
April	2,000	9,212	26.0	*	*	18,414	6.5
May	1,383	8,316	23.7	3,049	6.6	17,904	6.3
June	936	7,751	22.1	*	*	16,983	5.9
July	722	7,137	20.4	*	*	19,683	6.9
Aug.	897	7,462	21.4	3,912	8.3	20,805	7.2
Sept.	932	7,719	22.3	*	*	20,695	7,2
Oct.	2,430	8,425	24.4	*	*	21,341	7.4
Nov.	5,149	—	24.9	3,172	6.7	25,899	8.9
Dec.	5,234	—	—	*	*	35,689	12.1
1927							
Jan.	5,026	—	—	*	*	41,620[1]	14.4[1]
Feb.	4,596	—	—	—	—		
Number on which latest percentages are based	*	34,459		47,147		289,679[1]	

TABLE I (*cont.*)

Date (end of month)	Poland	Russia	Sweden		Switzerland		Czechoslovakia	
	Number unemployed registered	Number unemployed remaining on live register	Trade unionists		Number wholly unemployed registered	Unemployment funds	Trade union insurance funds	
			Number unemployed	Per cent.		Per cent. unemployed	Number unemployed in receipt of benefit	Per cent.
1926								
Jan.	359,810	988,000	34,601	15.7	20,525		22,738	2.1
Feb.	358,430	1,005,600	32,695	14.8	18,138		25,333	2.3
March	345,010	1,056,400	31,712	14.7	14,307	2.7	27,535	2.5
April	320,520	1,070,900	29,220	12.3	11,320	*	30,056	2.7
May	303,720	1,114,200	22,413	9.9	10,703	*	33,670	3.0
June	288,510	1,065,500	22,715	9.6	10,272	2.4	40,034	3.4
July	263,540	1,030,100	20,206	8.6	11,013	*	46,052	4.1
Aug.	241,790	1,023,700	19,511	8.3	11,818	*	46,129	4.0
Sept.	213,690	1,070,990	22,114	9.1	12,803	2.8	42,601	3.7
Oct.	196,586	1,163,400	28,390	11.4	14,253	*	35,948	3.1
Nov.	200,570	1,254,300	33,193	13.0	16,366	*	29,020	2.5
Dec.	236,060	1,289,600	47,614	19.1	17,900	5.6	29,295	2.5
1927								
Jan.	251,702	—	39,344	16.1	19,370	*	—	—
Feb.	—	—	—	—	19,201			
Number on which latest percentages are based	*	*	244,016		*	178,975	1,159,867	

[1] Provisional figures.

The sign * signifies " no figures published ". The sign — signifies " figures not yet received".

TABLE II. STATISTICS OF EMPLOYMENT

Date (end of month)	Germany[1]	Canada[1]	Esthonia	United States	Switzerland
	Index number of employment				
	Membership of sickness funds in Dec. 1921=100	Number employed on 17 Jan. 1920=100	Number employed in preceding month=100	Average number employed in 1923=100	Number employed in Sept. 1924=100
1926					
Jan.	93.4	90.7	100.0	92.3	*
Feb.	93.4	91.5	101.2	93.3	*
March	94.3	91.4	99.6	93.7	95.2
April	97.7	94.3	97.9	92.8	*
May	98.8	101.0	106.0	91.7	*
June	98.9	103.7	100.9	91.3	96.5
July	99.2	104.2	—	89.8	*
Aug.	99.8	104.9	—	90.7	*
Sept.	100.4	105.2	—	92.2	95.3
Oct.	101.2	102.8	—	92 5	*
Nov.	101.2	101.1	—	91.4	*
Dec.	96.4	94.8	—	90,9	93.6
1927					
Jan.	95.2	95.4	—	89.4	*
Feb.	—	—	—	91.0	*
Number of persons on which latest figures are based	12,056,316	788,887	32,874	3,009,982	174,484

[1] The figures relate to the 1st of the following month.

The sign * signifies "no figures published". The sign — signifies "figures not yet received".

Cost of Living and Retail Prices

Tables I to V give for a number of countries index numbers of the cost of living, food, clothing, heating and lighting, and rent. The sources and methods of compilation of the statistics are given in the *Review* for July 1924 and later months.

TABLE I. COST-OF-LIVING INDEX NUMBERS

(Base, as far as possible, July 1914 = 100)

Country	South Africa (Union)	Germany	Australia	Austria [1]	Belgium [2]	Bulgaria	Canada	Chile [3]	Denmark	Danzig	Egypt
Towns and localities	9	72	6	Vienna	59	12	60	Chile	100	Danzig	Cairo
1926 Feb.	131	139	*	99	140	2849	154	179	*	134	163
Mar.	131	138	158	98	137	2796	153	179	*	132	163
April	131	140	*	98	140	2726	152	179	*	134	162
May	132	140	*	97	147	2888	150	181	*	139	161
June	131	140	162	99	155	2793	150	183	*	139	159
July	130	142	*	98	174	2790	150	190	184	137	159
Aug.	130	142	*	99	182	2712	149	192	*	135	161
Sept.	130	142	159	99	179	2677	148	187	*	135	160
Oct.	131	142	*	99	188	2662	150	186	*	135	161
Nov.	131	144	*	99	196	2693	151	184	*	136	156
Dec.	129	144	—	100	199	—	152	182	*	139	156
1927 Jan.	122	145	*	101	202	—	151	176	181	136	155
Feb.	—	145	*	100	204	—	—	—	*	136	—

Country	Esthonia [4]	United States [3]	Finland	France	Great Britain	Greece	Hungary [5]	India	Irish Free State	Italy	Latvia	Lithuania [3]
Towns and localities	Tallinn	32	21	Paris	630	Athens	Budapest	Bombay	105	Milan	Riga	84
1926 Feb.	135	*	1175	*	172	1664	14,625	155	*	661	118	142
Mar.	134	*	1172	451	168	1706	14,728	153	*	654	118	142
April	136	*	1163	*	167	1731	14,512	153	180	642	117	140
May	136	*	1159	*	168	1741	14,623	155	*	652	119	141
June	136	175	1175	485	170	1791	14,704	157	*	656	119	141
July	136	*	1183	*	170	1808	14,823	155	182	649	118	140
Aug.	135	*	1213	*	172	1818	14,838	155	*	652	115	139
Sept.	130	*	1203	539	174	1833	14,593	155	*	647	112	139
Oct.	129	*	1197	*	179	1862	14,883	154	189	672	112	139
Nov.	129	*	1193	*	179	1895	15,293	156	*	657	111	141
Dec.	130	176	1197	545	175	1889	15,204	156	*	657	114	143
1927 Jan.	132	*	1187	*	172	—	—	155	182	655	—	142
Feb.	132	*	1189	*	171	—	—	155	*	667	—	—

Country	Luxemburg	Norway	New Zealand	Netherlands [6]	Peru [3]	Poland	Roumania	Russia [7]	Sweden	Switzerland	Czechoslovakia
Towns and localities	Luxemburg	31	4	Amsterdam	Lima	Warsaw	Whole country	229	46	33	Prague
1926 Feb.	522	*	162	*	194	171	3320	225	*	164	699
Mar.	527	227	*	160	196	169	3310	229	173	163	687
April	546	*	*	*	193	177	3327	239	*	162	685
May	578	*	163	*	195	185	3370	233	*	162	692
June	609	221	*	171	197	184	3436	227	172	162	693
July	686	*	*	*	194	178	3340	228	*	162	718
Aug.	688	*	163	*	195	182	3455	222	*	161	722
Sept.	711	217	*	164	196	189	3460	220	171	161	722
Oct.	727	*	*	*	188	193	3600	222	*	161	726
Nov.	734	*	162	*	189	197	3700	224	*	161	734
Dec.	746	213	*	168	189	199	3760	223	171	161	735
1927 Jan.	756	*	*	*	189	202	—	227	*	160	741
Feb.	758	*	—	*	193	201	—	—	*	160	—

[1] 1925 = 100. [2] 1921 = 100. [3] 1913 = 100. [4] 1922 = 100. [5] 1913 = 1. [6] 1911-1913 = 100.
The sign * signifies " no figures published ". The sign — signifies " figures not yet received ".

TABLE II. FOOD INDEX NUMBERS

(Base, as far as possible, July 1914 = 100)

Country	South Africa (Union)	Germany	Australia	Austria [1]	Belgium [2]	Bulgaria	Canada	Denmark	Egypt	Spain	Esthonia [3]
Towns and localities	9	72	30	Vienna	59	12	60	100	Cairo	Madrid	Tallinn
1926 Feb.	117	142	*	98	142	2855	154	*	159	183	138
Mar.	118	141	159	96	138	2799	153	*	161	185	136
April	119	142	*	96	142	2731	152	*	161	187	139
May	119	142	*	95	152	2909	149	*	160	183	139
June	118	143	162	98	161	2808	149	*	157	183	139
July	117	145	*	97	185	2803	150	159	158	186	139
Aug.	117	146	*	98	193	2720	147	*	159	178	138
Sept.	117	150	155	98	186	2680	147	*	157	187	128
Oct.	120	145	*	98	197	2662	148	*	160	190	127
Nov.	119	148	*	99	206	2693	151	*	157	191	127
Dec.	117	150	158	100	208	—	153	*	154	193	128
1927 Jan.	116	151	*	100	208	—	151	156	153	196	131
Feb.	—	152	*	100	212	—	—	*	—	—	132

Country	United States	Finland	France	Great Britain	Greece	Hungary [4]	India	Irish Free State	Italy [7]
Towns and localities	51	21	Paris	630	Athens	Budapest	Bombay	105	Milan
1926 Feb.	158	1106	495	165	1738	16,471	151	*	676
Mar.	156	1100	497	159	1805	16,668	150	*	654
April	159	1085	503	158	1821	16,322	150	175	645
May	157	1078	522	158	1817	16,122	152	*	664
June	156	1090	544	161	1870	16,298	155	*	657
July	153	1105	574	161	1849	16,546	153	174	654
Aug.	152	1153	587	162	1871	15,997	152	*	660
Sept.	155	1137	590	163	1890	16,189	153	*	652
Oct.	156	1126	624	169	1933	16,431	152	178	654
Nov.	158	1114	628	169	1986	16,783	154	*	630
Dec.	158	1110	599	167	1973	16,622	155	*	631
1927 Jan.	156	1092	592	164	—	—	152	178	625
Feb.	152	1095	585	162	—	—	152	*	642

Country	Latvia	Norway	New Zealand	Peru [5]	Poland	Russia [6]	Sweden	Switzerland	Czechoslovakia
Towns and localities	Riga	31	4	Lima	Warsaw	229	49	33	Prague
1926 Feb.	103	212	153	170	195	211	159	163	787
Mar.	103	205	152	171	189	212	158	161	767
April	101	198	151	166	204	225	157	161	761
May	103	195	151	169	214	218	156	159	774
June	103	194	151	172	213	212	156	159	775
July	103	198	149	172	207	213	156	159	808
Aug.	97	196	149	174	213	204	155	157	817
Sept.	94	193	148	167	227	200	156	158	816
Oct.	92	191	147	164	232	—	155	160	823
Nov.	91	186	146	166	244	—	155	159	837
Dec.	94	184	149	167	247	—	155	159	840
1927 Jan.	—	180	148	165	247	—	153	158	849
Feb.	—	177	—	173	248	—	150	157	—

[1] 1925 = 100. [2] 1921 = 100. [3] 1922 = 100. [4] 1913 = 1. [5] 1913 = 100.
The sign * signifies " no figures published ". The sign — signifies " figures not yet received ".

Country	Germany	Austria[1]	Belgium[2]	Canada	Denmark	Spain	Esthonia[3]	United States	Finland	France	Great Britain	Hungary[4]	India	Irish Free State	Italy	Latvia	Norway	New Zealand	Poland	Russia[5]	Sweden	Switzerland	Czechoslovakia
Towns and localities	72	Vienna	59	60	100	Madrid	Tallinn	32	21	Paris	630	Budapest	Bombay	105	Milan	Riga	31	4	Warsaw	229	49	33	Prague
TABLE III. CLOTHING INDEX NUMBERS *(Base, as far as possible, July 1914 = 100)*																							
1926 Feb.	169	100	145	*	*	*	119	*	1043	*	225	18,552	174	*	702	122	*	157	251	290	*	179	1001
Mar.	168	99	144	*	*	*	119	*	1044	524	223	18,552	175	*	702	122	213	*	251	299	188	179	994
April	167	99	145	*	*	*	119	*	1049	*	223	18,502	170	205	702	122	*	*	251	302	*	172	994
May	165	99	151	*	*	*	119	*	1049	*	223	18,273	162	*	691	122	*	156	272	303	*	172	994
June	164	99	155	*	*	*	118	168	1047	577	220	18,273	160	*	692	122	207	*	272	301	187	172	994
July	163	99	167	*	210	*	118	*	1044	*	220	18,273	160	205	692	122	*	*	254	300	*	172	994
Aug.	161	99	173	*	*	*	118	*	1039	*	220	18,273	160	*	692	122	*	154	254	298	*	172	994
Sept.	160	98	179	*	*	*	118	*	1039	635	220	17,915	159	*	692	122	200	*	256	299	184	172	994
Oct.	160	98	186	*	*	*	118	*	1037	*	218	17,915	156	205	711	122	*	*	256	—	*	166	982
Nov.	158	98	191	*	*	*	118	*	1035	*	218	17,915	148	*	709	122	*	154	256	—	*	166	982
Dec.	158	98	199	*	*	*	118	167	1035	616	218	—	143	*	709	122	191	*	256	—	182	166	982
1927 Jan.	157	98	203	*	196	*	116	*	1035	*	215	—	148	—	705	—	*	*	256	—	*	166	975
Feb.	156	97	207	*	*	*	116	*	1035	*	215	—	—	*	705	—	*	—	252	—	*	166	—
TABLE IV. HEATING AND LIGHTING INDEX NUMBERS *(Base, as far as possible, July 1914 = 100)*																							
1926 Feb.	143	100	116	180	*	173	92	*	1243	*	185	17,926	165	*	505	367	*	176	160	217	171	148	807
Mar.	143	100	115	179	*	168	92	*	1248	447	185	17 926	165	*	505	367	208	*	165	234	170	147	805
April	142	99	116	180	*	169	92	*	1248	*	185	17,674	164	195	505	367	*	*	160	238	170	146	805
May	140	99	118	177	*	171	92	*	1250	*	190	17,674	164	*	505	367	*	176	161	226	167	145	805
June	140	97	120	176	*	176	92	181	1254	452	195	17,590	164	*	512	367	201	*	160	214	168	145	805
July	141	99	142	175	215	177	88	*	1238	*	200	17,506	164	234	512	367	*	*	158	217	167	145	805
Aug.	141	100	159	175	*	174	92	*	1242	*	215	17,506	164	*	512	367	*	177	176	226	166	144	805
Sept.	143	100	163	176	*	177	95	*	1257	541	230	17,506	164	*	512	367	208	*	182	233	166	144	810
Oct.	144	103	179	176	*	172	95	*	1276	*	255	18,933	164	293	565	358	*	*	196	—	170	145	814
Nov.	144	105	197	177	*	182	94	*	1349	*	250	19,394	166	*	565	359	*	177	188	—	188	146	814
Dec.	144	105	206	176	*	189	96	188	1389	577	215	—	166	*	565	410	237	*	188	—	186	146	814
1927 Jan.	145	107	204	—	230	180	100	*	1404	*	210	—	166	—	627	—	*	*	192	—	184	146	814
Feb.	145	106	197	—	*	—	98	*	1406	*	203	—	—	*	661	—	*	—	189	—	181	144	—
TABLE V. RENT INDEX NUMBERS *(Base, as far as possible, July 1914 = 100)*																							
1926 Feb.	91	102	153	143	*	*	175	*	1266	*	148	6,960	172	*	477	80	*	174	72	*	*	163	250
Mar.	91	105	153	143	*	*	175	*	1266	220	148	6,960	172	*	477	80	179	*	72	*	188	163	250
April	97	105	154	142	*	*	175	*	1266	*	149	6,960	172	127	477	80	*	*	76	*	*	163	256
May	99	109	154	143	*	*	175	*	1266	*	149	7,075	172	*	477	80	*	178	76	*	*	167	256
June	100	118	155	143	*	*	175	165	1334	250	150	7,975	172	*	477	80	179	*	76	*	188	167	256
July	104	118	157	143	185	*	175	*	1334	*	150	7,975	172	127	477	80	*	*	76	*	*	167	256
Aug.	105	118	161	142	*	*	175	*	1334	*	150	7,975	172	*	477	80	*	182	76	*	*	167	256
Sept.	105	118	162	142	*	*	175	*	1334	250	150	7,975	172	*	477	70	179	*	76	*	188	167	256
Oct.	105	118	165	142	*	*	175	*	1334	*	150	7,975	172	127	638	78	*	*	76	*	*	167	256
Nov.	105	118	166	142	*	*	175	*	1334	*	150	8,700	172	*	638	78	*	182	76	*	*	167	256
Dec.	105	118	166	142	*	*	175	164	1334	250	151	—	172	*	638	78	179	*	76	*	188	167	256
1927 Jan.	105	118	180	—	185	*	175	*	1334	*	151	—	172	—	638	—	*	*	92[6]	*	*	167	261
Feb.	105	121	181	—	*	*	175	*	1334	*	151	—	—	*	638	—	*	—	92	*	*	167	—

[1] 1925 = 100. [2] 1921 = 100. [3] 1922 = 100. [4] 1913 = 1. [5] 1913 = 100. [6] New series. The sign * signifies "no figures published". The sign — signifies "figures not yet received".

Wage Rates and Retail Prices in Various Cities

Cost of Food in Different Capitals

Figures are given below in continuation of similar data published in previous articles, showing the cost in dollars of the food items included in the unit of measure used in calculating the real wage index numbers[1]. The rates of exchange used in the calculations are averages of the rates for the month of December 1926. As stated in previous numbers of the *Review*, differences in the cost in dollars, although mainly the result of differences in the cost of the items in the various cities, are to some extent due to variations in the qualities of the food items included and to factors affecting the rates of exchange. The effects of fluctuations in the rates of exchange may account for certain unexpected results.

The costs in dollars in various cities at about 1 January 1927 of the unit of measure or basket of provisions were as follows :

	$		$
Lodz	1.12	Lisbon	1.71
Tallinn	1.18	Vienna	1.72
Brussels	1.21	London	1.74
Warsaw	1.21	Dublin	1.80
Riga	1.31	Stockholm	1.82
Prague	1.37	Copenhagen	1.87
Amsterdam	1.47	Madrid	1.88
Paris	1.62	Ottawa	1.92
Rome	1.63	Sydney	2.02
Berlin	1.70	Philadelphia	2.45
Milan	1.70		

Wage and Price Statistics for 1 January 1927

Tables I and II below, giving wage and price statistics in various cities at 1 Jannary 1927 or the nearest date for which figures are available, are in continuation of corresponding tables published in the March number of the *Review*[2] which gave data generally for 1 December 1926. Information is given for 21 cities, the figures generally having been supplied to the International Labour Office by the Department of the Central Government or of the Municipality which compiles these data. In certain cases figures have been taken from official publications.

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[1] Cf. *International Labour Review*, Vol. XV, No. 1, Jan. 1927, p. 126.

[2] *Idem*, Vol. XV, No. 3, March 1927, pp. 466-467.

Table I gives money wages, generally based on rates fixed by collective agreements, of typical categories of workers in the building, engineering, furniture-making, and printing and bookbinding industries. The figures are calculated on the basis of 48 hours' work, generally at ordinary time rates. So far as information is available, the amounts of cost-of-living bonuses and family allowances paid in certain cities are included. It should be pointed out that the data are not in all cases strictly comparable, as for some cities for which minimum rates are given the rates actually paid are somewhat higher. In the other cases the figures given are either the actual rates, or minimum rates which differ to a very small extent from the actual rates. The figures for Tallinn are based on average earnings.

Table II gives the average retail prices of various articles of food which are of importance in the consumption of wage earners and their families.

Table III, giving index numbers of comparative real wages in various cities at or about 1 January 1927, is in continuation of a corresponding table published in the *Review* for January[1] in which data were given for 1 October 1926. The index numbers are calculated from the figures of wages and prices given in tables I and II, by the method described in the *Review* for October 1924 and subsequent numbers, real wages in London at 1 January 1927 being taken as base (= 100).

If comparisons are made between the index numbers given in table III and corresponding numbers previously published, it should be noted that differences between the index numbers for any city at different dates may be due either to changes in the level of real wages in that city between those dates or to changes in the level of real wages in London. The index numbers thus show only proportionate changes in the levels of real wages in relation to those in London. In order to avoid the difficulty in comparison due to changes in the level of real wages in London, a fourth table is given showing index numbers of comparative real wages in various cities on the basis of real wages in London at 1 July 1924 (= 100).

Note on Comparisons in Tables III and IV

It should be emphasised that the comparative levels of real wages shown by the index numbers in table III are subject to the important reservations made in the *Review* for October 1924. As stated above or indicated in previous articles, the wage and price data for the different cities used as basis for the comparisons are not strictly comparable. Also, in the case of certain cities in Southern European countries, the relatively low index numbers of real wages may be accounted for in part by differences in the items of food consumption in such countries as compared with those ordinarily consumed in most of the other countries included in the table. The budgets used in the comparisons do not

[1] *Idem*, Vol. XV, No. 1, Jan. 1927, p. 130.

TABLE I. MONEY WAGES CALCULATED ON THE BASIS OF 48 HOURS' WORK AT ORDINARY TIME RATES AT 1 JANUARY 1927

Industry and occupation	Amsterdam	Berlin	Brussels	Copenhagen	Dublin		Lisbon	Lodz	London		Madrid	Milan	Ottawa	Paris	Philadelphia[1]	Prague	Riga	Rome	Stockholm[2]	Sydney[3]	Tallinn[3]	Vienna	Warsaw
Building Industry:	Gulden	R. Mks.	Francs	Kroner	s.	d.	Escudos	Zloty	s.	d.	Pesetas	Lire	Dollars	Francs	Dollars	Koruny	Lats	Lire	Kronor	s.	d.	E. Mks.	Schillinge	Zloty
Bricklayers or masons	38.40	60.48	174.24	117.60	90	0	120.00	48.00	85	0	66.00	192.00	48.00	240.00	72.00	240.00	40.74	192.00	76.80	123	4	2,268	68.16	51.84
Carpenters	38.40	60.96	182.40	101.76	88	0	120.00	48.00	85	0	78.00	201.60	36.00	240.00	54.00	252.50	27.36	192.00	76.80	131	11	2,118	72.96	50.40
Joiners	38.40	—	189.60	87.84	88	0	120.00	—	85	0	90.00	187.20	36.00	228.00	54.00	—	32.04	172.80	76.80	—		2,178	55.68	—
Plumbers	38.40	64.80	167.04	90.72	89	0	114.00	—	85	0	75.00	—	40.80	240.00	55.20	—	31.92	168.00	66.24	127	8	—	55.10	—
Painters (general)	36.00	60.00	157.44	92.16	86	0	108.00	—	81	0	78.00	211.20	31.20	240.00	48.00	277.50	37.98	252.00	81.60	118	0	—	76.80	51.36
Labourers (general)	31.20	46.08	126.24	86.40	64	0	78.00	24.00	65	0	42.00	124.80	19.20	180.00	40.80	180.00	21.90	144.00	69.30	113	0	1,530	52.80	31.68
Engineering Trades:																								
Fitters	32.16	—	181.44	86.88	75	1	120.00	36.96	62	2	72.00	166.86	28.80	225.60	48.00	245.00	31.32	172.80	—	114	6	—	—	40.80
Ironmoulders (hand)	32.16	—	1s7.68	99.84	75	1	120.00	36.96	62	2	72.00	177.90	28.32	232.80	46.50	290.00	33.18	172.80	—	122	9	2,070	—	40.80
Patternmakers	32.16	—	245.76	93.60	77	1	120.00	36.96	66	10	90.00	—	33.60	288.00	48.00	317.50	29.28	—	—	123	6	—	—	40.80
Turners	32.16	—	192.48	—	75	1	120.00	36.96	62	2	78.00	179.40	28.80	237.60	38.40	245.00	27.72	165.60	—	114	6	2,130	53.30	40.80
Labourers	25.68	31.20	137.76	66.24	55	2	—	23.04	43	3	42.00	136.20	19.20	156.00	31.20	155.00	18.66	120.00	—	96	0	1,170	35.52	26.40
Furniture Trades:																								
Cabinet-makers	32.64	47.38	194.40	79.20	88	0	120.00	—	84	0	72.00	200.16	27.60	288.00	—	290.00	34.08	240.00	57.60	111	0	1,710	52.80	—
Labourers	—	39.56	—	—	60	0	—	—	—		42.00	141.60	16.80	216.00	—	150.00	20.94	129.60	51.84	—		1,644	35.04	—
Printing and Bookbinding Trades:																								
Hand compositors (book and job)	35.04	48.00	254.00	91.68	84	0	120.00	73.75	89	0	73.50	262.80	35.20	288.00	43.20	—	46.62	203.50	60.55	122	2	2,640	60.50	114.24
Machine " "	39.36	57.60	266.00	91.68	84	0	120.00	105.00	96	0	81.00	283.20	35.20	306.00	45.17	285.00	66.78	257.00	66.40	135	3[4]	3,498	72.60	159.84
Machine minders	35.04	48.00	254.00	86.88	84	0	120.00	72.50	89	0	88.50	259.26	35.20	—	42.00	—	56.58	203.50	60.55	122	2	2,676	60.50	114.24
Bookbinders	35.04	44.16	250.00	89.28	84	0	120.00	72.50	80	0	70.50	262.80	34.00	—	41.00	212.50	49.44	190.00	55.20	103	8	2,124	49.25	100.32
Labourers	28.08	42.00	—	69.60	55	6	—	25.00	71	0	48.00	176.82	—	—	—	187.50	29.04	165.00	49.60	—		1,800	42.00	57.12

[1] Figures for 1 October 1925.

[2] For certain occupations the figures are minimum rates fixed by collective agreements and skilled workers are frequently paid at higher rates.

[3] Figures for 30 June 1926.

[4] Rates for linotype operators.

[5] Figures for 1 November 1926.

TABLE II. AVERAGE RETAIL PRICES[1] OF CERTAIN ARTICLES OF FOOD AT 1 JANUARY 1927

Commodity	Amsterdam	Berlin	Brussels[2]	Copenhagen	Dublin[2]	Lisbon	Lodz	London	Madrid	Milan	Ottawa	Paris	Philadelphia[3]	Prague	Riga	Rome	Stockholm	Sydney[6]	Tallinn[7]	Vienna[2]	Warsaw
	Gulden	R. Mks.	Francs	Kroner	Pence	Escudos	Zloty	Pence	Pesetas	Lire	Cents	Francs	Cents	Koruny	Lats	Lire	Kronor	Pence	E. Mks.	Schillinge	Zloty
Bread																					
White	0.24	0.72	2.65	0.83	6.1	2.40	0.63	5.2	0.65	2.70	17.0	2.25	20.9	3.24	0.71	2.65	0.76	7.1	48.8	1.65	0.64
Black or rye	0.18	0.41	2.60	0.24	—	1.80	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	2.93	0.30	—	0.64	—	18.3	0.63	—
Flour (wheaten)	0.28	0.58	3.73	0.39	5.7	3.40	0.85	6.0	0.80	3.05	12.8	3.30	12.1	4.37	0.75	3.00	0.46	5.1	40.3	0.78	0.95
Butter																					
Fresh	2.33	4.10	30.21	3.41	48.5	20.00	7.29	47.2	5.00	23.75	93.7	28.55	132.3	25.98	3.99	23.00	—	52.2	202.5	6.80	8.21
Salt	—	3.70	28.50	—	39.7	22.00	—	47.4	3.20	—	—	—	—	—	3.50	11.00	3.49	—	232.0	—	—
Margarine	1.20	1.86	11.62	1.67	17.6	7.00	—	17.6	6.00	12.80	—	11.10	67.5	15.41	2.30	15.00	1.55	—	—	2.80	—
Beef (home produce)																					
Ribs	1.40	2.20	21.00	2.80	39.6	8.00	2.52	41.2	5.60	14.27	45.4	20.85	80.0	15.81	1.15	11.00	2.14	14.6	113.1	3.20	2.63
Thin flank	1.10		10.50	1.54	17.6			18.1	4.30	7.81	23.6	9.80	56.7	13.58		10.00	1.69	13.2	69.1		
Beef (chilled or frozen)																					
Ribs	1.10	1.40	14.33	—	—	—	—	23.8	3.40	8.44	—	14.00	—	—	—	4.00[4]	—	—	—	—	—
Thin flank	0.80		7.00	—	—	—	—	11.0	1.60	3.36	—	6.50	—	—	—	11.00[5]	—	—	—	2.60	—
Mutton (home produce)																					
Leg	2.20	2.50	15.17	—	35.3	7.00	2.40	40.1	4.00	—	60.9	21.45	89.3	13.06	1.16	—	2.48	15.8	91.6	3.20	2.49
Breast	1.20	2.10	9.00	—	26.5			19.6	3.50	—	—	8.60				—	—	12.5	83.8		
Mutton (frozen)																					
Leg	—	—	13.00	—	—	—	—	26.7	—	—	—	15.50	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Breast	—	—	3.50	—	—	—	—	11.0	—	—	—	8.00	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Bacon	1.20	3.10	17.75	2.39	39.6	8.00	3.00	39.5	3.50	8.15	91.7	14.65	106.5	—	2.06	8.50	2.50	42.5	152.6	2.50	3.90
Potatoes	0.09	0.11	0.99	0.16	2.1	0.90	0.15	2.8	0.35	0.97	6.5	1.45	10.1	1.44	0.11	0.90	0.14	5.6	4.9	0.26	0.20
Sugar (white granulated)	0.54	0.70	4.16	0.62	7.7	3.00	1.30	8.2	1.75	7.10	17.2	5.00	14.8	6.01	0.69	7.30	0.65	10.2	42.7	1.08	1.40
Coffee	1.65	6.90	24.63	3.79	61.7	12.00	11.00	—	9.00	35.85	137.2	26.80	100.5	45.56	9.00	35.00	3.80	57.8	390.7	10.40	11.20
Coffee substitute	—	0.50	—	—	—	—	2.50	—	3.00	15.10	—	7.40	—	4.39	0.70	14.17	1.60	—	97.7	1.50	2.74
Tea	3.10	9.60	33.33	7.25	44.1	27.50	25.00	59.5	18.00	—	159.2	47.00	156.3	—	12.00	58.00	—	59.1	586.1	16.00	28.80
Cheese	1.40	1.60	—	1.81	35.3	20.00	1.76	27.8	5.50	26.87	69.9	16.65	86.0	5.88	1.48	17.00	1.76	36.6	195.4	5 40	2.10
Milk (unskimmed)	0.17	0.29	1.90	0.35	6.2	2.40	0.45	6.2	0.80	1.70	10.6	1.60	11.5	2.15	0.28	1.80	0.24	9.2	15.9	0.52	0.55
Eggs (not newlaid or preserved)	0.13	0.16	1.22	0.20	2.5	0.75	0.28	2.8	0.30	1.01	6.3	1.26	6.1	1.10	0.15	0.85	0.19	1.7	7.7	0.22	0.25
Rice	0.25	0.68	5.71	0.92	8.8	4.00	1.18	6.4	1.00	2.12	25.1	5.90	26.7	4.52	0.83	2.95	0.52	7.4	48.8	1.00	1.31

[1] Prices are per kilogramme, except for milk (per litre) and eggs (per unit). [2] Figures for 15 January. [3] Figures for 15 November 1926. [4] Best parts, with bones.
[5] Best parts, boned. [6] Figures for 15 September 1926. [7] Figures for 1 November 1926.

TABLE III. INDEX NUMBERS OF COMPARATIVE REAL WAGES IN VARIOUS CITIES AT 1 JANUARY 1927[1]

(Base: London, 1 January 1927 = 100)

City	Index numbers based on quantities of food consumption in :						General average index numbers based on food only	General average index numbers with allowance for rent
	Belgium and France	Central European countries	Great Britain	Southern European countries	Scandinavian countries	Oversea countries		
Amsterdam	86	95	79	85	94	86	87	87
Berlin	60	72	63	64	76	69	67	62
Brussels	43	40	43	41	46	42	42	45
Copenhagen	107	126	117	109	142	123	120	120
Dublin	101	103	107	97	103	103	102	111
Lisbon[2]	33	30	32	31	35	33	32	—
Lodz	44	51	38	45	48	45	45	50
London	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Madrid	57	53	53	56	57	56	55	—
Milan	46	49	45	49	52	50	48	49
Ottawa	142	148	157	145	162	168	153	151
Paris	56	59	53	58	63	55	57	—
Philadelphia	168	169	183	158	193	189	175	175
Prague	48	48	47	50	52	51	49	52
Riga	44	56	47	46	54	52	50	53
Rome[2]	47	50	45	49	52	50	49	51
Stockholm[3]	85	86	90	88	108	98	92	90
Sydney	130	119	151	141	125	150	136	136
Tallinn	42	42	45	44	55	51	46	48
Vienna	37	48	41	40	52	46	44	50
Warsaw[4]	40	45	35	42	43	41	41	42

[1] These index numbers are subject to the important reservations indicated in the note at the end of the article.

[2] The figures for Lisbon and Rome are relatively low. This may be accounted for in part by the differences in the items of food consumption in the Southern European countries from those ordinarily consumed in most of the other countries included in the table.

[3] The figures are based on wages in the building, furniture-making, and printing industries only. For other cities the metal industry is also included.

[4] Based on a weighted average wage. For other cities an unweighted average of the wages given in table I has been used.

make adequate allowance for the vegetable consumption in Southern European countries.

Further, the index numbers do not show differences in the general level of real wages, even in the cities included, being based on the wages of a few categories of workers in four industries only and on the prices of a limited number of articles of food. In the second series of general averages given in table III an allowance is made for rent, but no account is taken of expenditure on furniture, clothing, and other items of ordinary consumption. The index numbers, which are not representative of the

TABLE IV. INDEX NUMBERS OF COMPARATIVE REAL WAGES IN VARIOUS CITIES BASED ON COST OF FOOD ONLY[1]

(Base : London, 1 July 1924 = 100)

City	1924		1925[2]		1926[2]				1927[2]
	1 July	1 Oct.	1 Jan.	1 July	1 Jan.	1 April	1 July	1 Oct.	1 Jan.
Amsterdam	89	80	76	83	81	90	92	94	86
Berlin	55	59	57	63	69	71	70	67	66
Brussels	59	51	52	54	52	53	48	43	42
Copenhagen	—	—	79	93	116	—	114	121	118
Dublin	—	—	—	—	—	—	100	98	101
Lisbon	32	27	38	31	—	—	35	31	31
Lodz	—	—	48	54	45	54	44	47	45
London	100	94	92	99	95	103	102	98	99
Madrid	57	45	52	53	56	57	57	—	55
Milan	46	47	41	46	44	49	48	—	48
Oslo	72	76	74	79	94	100	—	78	—
Ottawa	172	153	154	162	140	146	152	155	151
Paris	73	67	66	—	—	61	—	—	57
Philadelphia	213	207	202	180	166	173	169	178	173
Prague	56	54	54	48	50	54	51	49	49
Riga	—	—	—	42	44	46	48	49	49
Rome	46	45	44	45	—	46	44	44	48
Stockholm[3]	85	79	78	78	82	89	89	89	91
Sydney	—	136	142	138	129	133	133	133	135
Tallinn	—	—	—	36	38	38	42	41	45
Vienna	47	44	44	42	43	45	44	43	43
Warsaw[4]	—	—	43	49	41	44	46	40[5]	41

[1] These index numbers are subject to the important reservations indicated in the note at the end of the article.

[2] The figures for Prague, Stockholm, Vienna, and Lisbon from April 1925 onwards are not strictly comparable with those for previous dates. In the case of Prague this is due in part to figures of the price of coffee as well as of coffee substitute being available, whereas in the previous calculations the price of coffee substitute only was used. Similarly in Stockholm, Vienna, and Lisbon in the calculations from April 1925 onwards the price of a superior as well as of an inferior quality of bread has been used in order to ensure a greater degree of comparability between the baskets of provisions for these cities and those used in other countries. The baskets of provisions used hitherto to measure wages in these four cities were inferior to those used in other countries, with the result that index numbers of real wages were relatively too high.

[3] The figures are based on wages in the building, furniture-making, and printing industries only. For other cities, the metal industry is also included.

[4] Based on a weighted average wage. For other cities an unweighted average of the wages given in table I has been used.

[5] Owing to an error of calculation, this figure was given in the January *Review* (p. 131) as 52 instead of 40.

relation between the general levels of real wages in the capital cities, are still less representative of differences in the levels of real wages in the respective countries. They may serve, however, as a rough indication of the relative levels of real wages of adult male workers in certain occupations and cities in different countries.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

Recent Labour Legislation

The list of laws and orders and international conventions given below continues the list published in previous numbers of the *Review*. The titles are, as a rule, given in the original language, with abbreviated translations of all those other than English, French, and German. A brief statement of the subject is added where the title itself does not indicate it. Abbreviated titles of sources have been used[1]. Those entries in the list marked with an asterisk (*) will be reproduced in full in English, French, and German in the *Legislative Series* of the International Labour Office.

LEGISLATION OF 1925

INTERNATIONAL

Poland–Czechoslovakia

Konwencja handlowa miedzy Rzeczapospolita Polska a Republika Czeskoslowacka, porpisana w Warsawie dn. 23. kwietnia 1925 r. (Dziennik Ustaw, 1926, No. 111, poz. 644, p. 1228.)

[Commercial Agreement between the Republic of Poland and the Czechoslovak Republic, signed at Warsaw on 23 April 1925.]

AUSTRALIA

New South Wales

Regulations under the Industrial Arbitration Act, 1912, as amended, governing the conditions of apprenticeship in the furniture-making, piano and musical

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[1] *List of abbreviations:* A. N. = Amtliche Nachrichten des Oesterreichischen Bundesministeriums für soziale Verwaltung; B. G. Bl. = Bundesgesetzblatt; B. I. R. S. = Boletin del Instituto de Reformas Sociales; B. M. T. = Bulletin du Ministère du Travail; B. O. M. T. = Boletin Oficial del Ministerio de Trabajo, Comercio e Industria; C. S. R. = Commonwealth Statutory Rules; D. R. A. = Deutscher Reichsanzeiger; Drj. Vest. = Drjaven Vestnik; E. K. N. = Ergatiké kai Koinoniké Nomothesia (parartéma B') (published by the Ministry of National Economy); Eph. Kyb. = Ephémeris tès Kybernéséos (Teuchos proton); G. U. = Gazzetta Ufficiale; I. N. K. T. = Izvestia Narodnogo Komissariata Trooda; J. O. = Journal Officiel; Lik. = Likumu un Minustru Kabineta Noteikumu Krajums; R. Arb. Bl. = Reichsarbeitsblatt; R. d. T. = Revue du Travail; R. G. Bl. = Reichsgesetzblatt; S. R. & O. = Statutory Rules and Orders; Sb. z. a n. = Sbirka zâkonu a narizeni (Collection of Laws and Orders of the Czechoslovak Republic); L. S. = Legislative Series of the International Labour Office.

instrument-making trades. Gazetted 18 September 1925. (Rules, Regulations, By laws, etc., 1925, p. 756.)

Regulations for the control of the pilotage service and for the good government of licensed pilots and other officers of the Department of Navigation. Gazetted 20 November 1925. (Rules, Regulations, By-Laws, etc., 1925, p. 898.)

Regulations under the Mines Rescue Act, 1925. Gazetted 11 December 1925. (Rules, Regulations, By-Laws, etc., 1925, p. 954.)

BOLIVIA

* Ley de 8 de enero de 1925. [Se interpreta el artículo 1º de la ley de empleados de comercio y otras industrias de 21 de noviembre de 1924.] (Legislación Social, 1925, p. 55.)

[Act to interpret section 1 of the Act of 21 November 1924 respecting salaried employees in commerce and industry. Dated 8 January 1925.]

* Decreto Supremo de 16 de marzo de 1925. [Reglamentación de la ley de 21 de noviembre de 1924.] (Legislación Social, 1925, p. 57.)

[Supreme Decree. (Regulations under the Act of 21 November 1924 respecting salaried employees in commerce and industry.) Dated 16 March 1925.]

Decreto Supremo de 15 de mayo de 1925. [Accidentes del trabajo.] (Legislación Social, 1925, p. 35.)

[Supreme Decree. (Industrial accidents.) Dated 15 May 1925.]

CANADA

Alberta

Order in Council No. 1/25 to approve orders of the Minimum Wage Board under the Minimum Wage Act (ch. 181 of R.S. of 1922) fixing periods of employment for employees in (1) manufacturing industry, (2) laundries, dyeing and cleaning establishments, (3) hotels and rooming houses, (4) personal service occupations, (5) offices. Dated 2 January 1925.

CEYLON

An Ordinance to amend the Road Ordinance, 1861, and the Road Ordinance, 1861, Amendment Ordinance, 1884. No. 9 of 1925. Assented to 5 September 1925.

CYPRUS

A Law to amend the Law relating to Co-operative Credit Societies. Dated 28 April 1925. (Statute Laws of Cyprus, No. 10 of 1925.)

FIJI ISLANDS

An Ordinance to amend the Native Lands Ordinance, 1905. No. 14 of 1925. Assented to 1 December 1925.

GILBERT AND ELLICE ISLANDS COLONY

An Ordinance to amend the Gilbert and Ellice (Consolidation) Ordinance, 1917, in so far as it relates to the definition of Natives. No. 1 of 1925. Dated 24 August 1925.

GREAT BRITAIN

Northern Ireland

An Act to amend and prolong the duration of the Increase of Rent and Mortgage Interest (Restrictions) Act, 1920, in its application to Northern Ireland, and

for purposes in connection therewith. (15 & 16 Geo. V, ch. 12.) Dated 9 June 1925. (Public General Acts of 1925, p. 79.)

An Act to enable the Ministry of Finance to make further advances for discharging the liabilities of the Northern Irish Unemployment Fund. (15 & 16 Geo. V, ch. 15.) Dated 7 September 1925. (Public General Acts of 1925, p. 92.)

An Act to make provision for pensions for widows, orphans, and persons between the ages of sixty-five and seventy, and for the payment of contributions in respect thereof; and to amend the enactments relating to health and unemployment insurance and old-age pensions. (15 & 16 Geo. V, ch. 23.) Dated 6 November 1925. (Public General Acts of 1925, p. 131.)

An Act to continue certain expiring laws as respects Northern Ireland. [Labourers' Health Insurance, Coal-Mines (Minimum Wage), unemployment relief works, employment of women and children.] (15 & 16 Geo. V, ch. 19.) Dated 10 November 1925. (Public General Acts of 1925, p. 111.)

An Act to amend paragraph (3) of section two and subsection (1) of section nine of the Old-Age Pensions Act, 1908, in its application to Northern Ireland. (15 & 16 Geo. V, ch. 20.) Dated 10 November 1925. (Public General Acts of 1925, p. 115.)

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An Act to enable the Ministry of Finance to make further advances for discharging the liabilities of the Northern Irish Unemployment Fund. (15 & 16 Geo. V, ch. 26.) Dated 22 December 1925. (Public General Acts of 1925, p. 208.)

An Act to amend the Superannuation Acts (Northern Ireland), 1921 to 1923. (15 & 16 Geo. V, ch. 28.) Dated 22 December 1925. (Public General Acts of 1925, p. 211.)

NORTHERN RHODESIA

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An Ordinance to constitute and provide for the administration of a Fund to be called the Barotse Trust Fund. No. 18 of 1925. Assented to 30 May 1925. [Objects of fund include establishment and maintenance of schools for industrial training of natives.] (Northern Rhodesia Government Gazette, 13 June 1925.)

NORWAY

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[Royal Resolution to amend sections 6, 16, and 17 of the regulations for the manning of Norwegian ships laid down by Royal Resolution of 31 May 1918. Cf. Royal Resolutions of 22 April and 13 May 1921, 17 February and 23 November 1923. Dated 19 June 1925.]

* Kongelig resolusjon. Bergverksordning for Spitsbergen (Svalbard). 7 august 1925. (Norsk Lovtidende, 1925, No. 37, p. 515.)

[Royal Resolution issuing a Mining Code for Spitzbergen. Dated 7 August 1925.]

POLAND

Silesia

Rozporzadzenie Wojewody Slaskiego z dnia 7. lutego 1925 r. w celu wykonania slaskiej ustawy w sprawie ochrony lokatorów z dnia 18. grdunia 1924 (Dz. U. Sl. Nr. 28, poz. 107.) (Dziennik ustaw Slaskich, 1925, No. 2, poz. 5.)

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SOLOMON ISLANDS

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UGANDA

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LEGISLATION OF 1926

CONTROLLED TERRITORIES OF LEAGUE OF NATIONS

Saar Territory

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imposant une résidence obligatoire à certains indigènes d'Anécho. (Journal officiel du Togo, 1926, No. 74, p. 382.)

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South-West Africa

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Tanganyika

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INTERNATIONAL

Argentina-Austria

* Convenio de reciprocidad entre la República Argentina y la República de Austria, para el pago de indemnizaciones por accidentes del trabajo, suscripto el 22 de marzo de 1926. (Crónica mensual del Departamento Nacional del Trabajo, 1926, No. 103, p. 1815.)

[Convention between Argentina and Austria respecting reciprocity in connection with the payment of industrial accident compensation. Dated 22 March 1926.]

Austria-Hungary

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Germany-Latvia

Vertrag zwischen dem Deutschen Reich und der Lettländischen Republik zur Regelung der wirtschaftlichen Beziehungen zwischen Deutschland und Lettland. Vom 28. Juni 1926.

Lîgums starp Vâcijas Valsti un Latvijas Republiku saimniecisko attiecîbu nokârtosanai starp Vâciju un Latviju. 1926. g. 28. juninâ.

(R. G. Bl., II, 1926, No. 46, p. 632.)

ARGENTINA

Decreto disponiendo que la tramitación de los accidentes del trabajo estará a cargo de la división de estadística del departamento nacional del trabajo. 29 de mayo de 1926. (Crónica mensual del Departamento Nacional del Trabajo, 1926, No. 103, p. 1816.)

[Decree to provide that the procedure with respect to industrial accidents shall be within the competence of the National Labour Department. Dated 29 May 1926.]

Resolución del ministerio de obras públicas, relativa a las denuncias de accidentes del trabajo por las empresas ferroviarias. 21 junio de 1926. (Crónica mensual del Departamento Nacional del Trabajo, 1926, No. 104, p. 1830.)

[Resolution of the Ministry of Public Works respecting the notification of industrial accidents by railway companies. Dated 21 June 1926.]

Decreto del P.E. excluyendo a las reparticiones del estado de las disposiciones

de la ley No. 11278. 20 de agosto de 1926. (Crónica mensual del Departamento Nacional del Trabajo, 1926, No. 104, p. 1837.)

[Decree of the Executive to exclude state departments from the provisions of Act No. 11278 (respecting payment of wages). Dated 20 August 1926.]

* Ley 11338 sobre trabajo en las panaderias, pastelerias, etc. 9 de septiembre de 1926. (Boletín Oficial, 1926, No. 9763, p. 946.)

[Act No. 11338 respecting employment in bakeries, confectioners' establishments, etc. Dated 9 September 1926.]

* Decreto de 29 de noviembre de 1926 reglamentando la Ley 11338 sobre trabajo nocturno en las panaderias. (Boletín Oficial, 1926, No. 9793, p. 1086.)

[Decree issuing administrative regulations under Act No. 11338 concerning night work in bakeries. Dated 29 November 1926.]

AUSTRALIA

Commonwealth

Regulations under the Navigation Act, 1912-1926 : Navigation (Manning and Accommodation) Regulations. Dated 27 October 1926. (C. S. R., 1926, No. 152.)

Regulations under the Navigation Act, 1912-1926 : Navigation (Cargo-Fire Prevention) Regulations. Dated 20 November 1926. (C. S. R., 1926, No. 163.)

New South Wales

Amendment of the Regulations under the Workers' Compensation Act, 1926, published in the Government Gazette on 24 June 1926 in pursuance of section 66 of the said Act. Dated 8 October 1926. (N. S. W. Government Gazette, No. 132, 8 October 1926.)

Queensland

An Act to amend " The Railways Acts, 1914 to 1923 ", in certain particulars. Assented to 3 November 1926. (Queensland Government Gazette, 1926, No. 123, p. 2009.)

Additional Regulation under the " The Unemployed Workers Insurance Act of 1922 ". Dated 11 November 1926. (Queensland Government Gazette, 1926, No. 140, p. 2165.)

Amended rules for payment of sustenance to intermittent and casual workers, under " The Unemployed Workers Insurance Act of 1922 ". Dated 11 November 1926. (Queensland Government Gazette, 1926, No. 140, p. 2166.)

Regulation in pursuance of the provisions of " The Workers' Compensation Acts, 1916 to 1925, " to amend the Workers' Compensation Regulations of 1917. Dated 18 November 1926. (Queensland Government Gazette, 1926, No. 153. p. 2277.)

An Act to consolidate and amend " The Primary Products, Pools Acts, 1922 to 1925 " and " The Primary Producers' Organisation Acts, 1922 to 1925 ", and for other consequential purposes ; and to amend certain other enactments in certain particulars. No. 20. Assented to 20 November 1926. (Queensland Government Gazette, 1926, No. 158, p. 2303.)

* An Act to amend "The Industrial Arbitration Acts, 1916 to 1925 ", in a certain particular. Assented to 26 November 1926. No. 25. (Queensland Government Gazette, 1926, No. 170.)

Western Australia

Order in Council under the Factories and Shops Act, 1920. Regulation providing that the Order Tailoring Industry shall be deemed to be a special industry for the purposes of section 40 of the Act. Dated 24 November 1926. (Government Gazette of Western Australia, 1926, No. 56, p. 2410.)

AUSTRIA

Bundesgesetz vom 10. Dezember 1926 über die Exekutionsfreiheit von Zuwendungen der Gebietskörperschaften an ihre Angestellten. (B. G. Bl., 1926, 84. Stück, No. 363, p. 1529.)

Bundesgesetz vom 10. Dezember 1926, womit einige Bestimmungen des Bundesgesetzes vom 18. Juli 1924, B. G. Bl. No. 245 (Gehaltsgesetz), abgeändert und ergänzt werden. (Gehaltsgesetznovelle.) (B. G. Bl, 1926, 84. Stück, No. 364, p. 1530.)

* Bundesgesetz vom 16. Dezember 1926, betreffend Fortsetzung der ausserordentlichen Massnahmen der Arbeitslosenfürsorge und Abänderung des Arbeitslosenversicherungsgesetzes (XIX. Novelle zum Arbeitslosenversicherungsgesetz). (B. G. Bl., 1926, 88. Stück, No. 384, p. 1721.)

Bundesgesetz vom 23. Dezember 1926 über die Verlängerung der Geltungsdauer und gleichzeitige Abänderung des Invalidenbeschäftigungsgesetzes vom 1. Oktober 1920, St. G. Bl. No. 459, in der Fassung des Bundesgesetzes vom 19. Dezember 1924, B. G. Bl. No. 457. (B. G. Bl., 1926, 88. Stück, No. 386, p. 1723.)

* Bundesgesetz vom 29. Dezember 1926, betr. die Kranken-, Stellenlosen-, Unfall- und Pensionsversicherung der Angestellten (Angestelltenversicherungsgesetz). (B. G. Bl., 1926, 88. Stück, No. 388, p. 1724.)

Verordnung des Bundesministeriums für soziale Verwaltung im Einvernehmen mit den beteiligten Bundesministerien vom 30. Dezember 1926, womit die Gültigkeit der Einstellungsscheine verlängert wird (IX. Durchführungsverordnung zum Invalidenbeschäftigungsgesetz). (B. G. Bl., 1926, 88. Stück, No. 389, p. 1757.)

BELGIUM

* Arrêté : Loi du 14 juin 1921 [journée de huit heures]. Art. 1er : Extension aux entreprises commerciales ; magasins de détail. Du 27 décembre 1926. (Moniteur Belge, No. 365, p. 7099.)

BRAZIL

Decreto n. 5053 de 6 de novembro de 1926 que modifica a organizaçao judiciaria do Districto Federal. (Diario Official, 1926, No. 256, p. 20317.)

[Decree No. 5053 to amend the judicial system of the Federal District. Dated 6 November 1926.]

Resoluçao do Ministro da Agricultura, Industria e Commercio, de 13 de novembro de 1926, approvando a consolidaçao dos dispositivos concernentes as escolas de Aprendizes Artifices. (Diario Official, 1926, No. 281, p. 22581.)

[Resolution of the Minister of Agriculture, Industry and Commerce, to approve consolidation of the provisions relating to apprenticeship schools. Dated 13 November 1926.]

BULGARIA

Ukase No. 1 : Act respecting the settlement of refugees on the land by means of funds procured by a loan issued in agreement with the League of Nations. Dated 14 December 1926. (Drj. Vest., 1926, No. 213, p. 1.)

CANADA

British Columbia

Regulations re Blasting. Under the "Metalliferous Mines Regulation Act" (R. S. B. C., 1924, ch. 172). Dated 9 April 1926.

Manitoba

Minimum Wage Board Regulation No. 6 governing the occupation of female

employees in brick-yards, and in seasonal and casual employment in industries in the Province of Manitoba not already covered by other regulations. Dated 24 July 1926.

Minimum Wage Board Regulation No. 7 governing the occupation of female employees in the following industries: artificial flowers, bedding, ladies' wear, hats, caps, embroidery, jewellery, regalia, and garments which include all clothing trades except dressmaking, millinery, custom tailoring and furriers in all portions of the Province of Manitoba. Dated 31 July 1926.

New Brunswiek

An Act to amend "The Vocational Education Act, 1923" (16 Geo. V, ch. 22). Assented to 25 March 1926. (Acts of New Brunswick, 1926, p. 208.)

An Act respecting highways. Dated 30 April 1926. (16 Geo. V, ch. 3.) (Acts of New Brunswick, 1926, p. 17.)

Ontario

Minimum Wage Act. (Amendments to 30 June 1926.)

Saskatchewan

New Regulations under the Theatres and Cinematographs Act. Dated 9 March 1926. (Saskatchewan Gazette, 1926, No. 12, p. 3.)

Orders of the Minimum Wage Board, Regulations governing female employees. Order No. 1: Shops and stores. Order No. 2: Laundries and factories. Order No. 3: Mail order houses. Gazetted 14 August 1926. (Saskatchewan Gazette, 1926, No. 33, p. 3.)

CYPRUS

A Law to amend the Law relating to Co-operative Credit Societies. Dated 27 March 1926. (Statute Laws of Cyprus, No. 18 of 1926.)

CZECHOSLOVAKIA

Vladni narizeni ze dne 21. rijna 1926, jimz se castecne doplnuje vladni narizeni provadejici zakon o vojenskych pozitcich zaopatrovacich. (Sb. z. a n., 1926, Castka 94, No. 199, p. 851.)

[Government Order to supplement in certain respects the Government Order for the administration of the Act concerning military pensions. Dated 21 October 1926.]

DANZIG (FREE CITY OF)

Gesetz betreffend Abänderung des Versorgungsgesetzes über die Versorgung der Militärpersonen usw. vom 26. August 1924. Vom 10. November 1926. (Gesetzblatt für die Freie Stadt Danzig, 1926, No. 32, p. 318.)

Ermächtigungsgesetz. Vom 29. November 1926. (Gesetzblatt für die Freie Stadt Danzig, 1926, No. 32, p. 317.)

[§ 1. Herabsetzung der Zahl der Staatsbediensteten.]

Gesetz über die Fristen für die Kündigung von Angestellten. Vom 9. Dezember 1926. (Gesetzblatt für die Freie Stadt Danzig, 1926, No. 35, p. 329.)

Erlass des Senats (Staatsverwaltung) vom 14. Dezember 1926. Betriebsruhe im Bäckereigewerbe. (Staatsanzeiger für die Freie Stadt Danzig, 1926, No. 89, p. 343.)

DENMARK

Bekendtgörelse om, hvilke Fag og Brancher af Fag der er berettigede til ekstraordinaer Arbejdslöshedsunderstöttelse i Henhold til § 31 i Lov af 4. Marts 1924 om Arbejdsanvisning og Arbejdslöshedsforsikring m.m. Den 28. September 1926. Nr. 240. (Lovtidenden A, No. 33, 1926, p. 1227.)

[Notification specifying the trades and branches thereof entitled to exceptional unemployment benefit under section 31 of the Act of 4 March 1924 respecting employment exchanges and unemployment insurance, etc. No. 240. Dated 28 September 1926.]

Bekendtgörelse om, hvilke Fag og Brancher af Fag der er berettigede til ekstraordinaer Arbejdslöshedsunderstöttelse i Henhold til § 31 i Lov af 4. Marts 1924 om Arbejdsanvisning og Arbejdslöshedsforsikring m.m. Nr 253. Den 29. Oktober 1926. (Lovtidenden A, 1926, No. 34, p. 1239.)

[Notification specifying the trades and branches thereof entitled to exceptional unemployment benefit under section 31 of the Act of 4 March 1924 respecting employment exchanges and unemployment insurance, etc. No. 253. Dated 29 October 1926.]

Bekendtgörelse om Tilföjelse til og Ændring i Indenrigsministeriets Bekendtgörelse Nr. 381 af 22. August 1922 om Indretningen og Brugen af mekanisk drevne Elevatorer. Nr. 270. Den 6. November 1926. (Lovtidenden A, 1926, No. 36, p. 1255.)

[Notification to supplement and amend the notification of the Ministry of the Interior of 22 August 1922, No. 381, respecting the erection and use of mechanically driven lifts. Dated 6 November 1926.]

Lov Nr. 276 om Aendring i Lov af 21. December 1921 om Maegling i Arbejdsstridigheder. Den 17. November 1926. (Lovtidenden A, 1926, No. 36, p. 1260.)

[Act No. 276 to amend the Act of 21 December 1921 respecting conciliation in labour disputes. Dated 17 November 1926.]

DUTCH EAST INDIES

Besluit van den Gouverneur-Generaal van Nederlandsch-Indië van 18 October 1926, No. 18. Tijdstip van inwerkingtreding van het Koninklijk besluit in Indisch Staatsblad 1926 No. 335, strekkende tot regeling van het arbeidscontract voor Nederlandsch-Indië. (Staatsblad van Nederlandsch-Indië, 1926, No. 458.)

[Decree No. 18 of the Governor-General of the Dutch East Indies: date of the coming into operation of the Royal Decree (Indisch Staatsblad 1926, No. 335) to regulate contracts of employment in the Dutch East Indies. Dated 18 October 1926.]

ECUADOR

Reglamento para las construcciones, reparaciones, conservación y modificaciones de las naves mercantes en el país. Aprobado por decreto de 19 de agosto de 1926. (Registro Oficial, 1926, No. 128, p. 1165.)

[Regulations for the construction, repair, maintenance, and alterations of merchant vessels in the country. Approved by Decree of 19 August 1926.]

Reglamento para el trazado de la linea de carga de los buques mercantes. Aprobado por decreto de 19 de agosto de 1926. (Registro Oficial, 1926, No. 128, p. 1167.)

[Regulations respecting the load-line of merchant ships. Approved by Decree of 19 August 1926.]

Reglamento de arqueo de naves. Aprobado por decreto de 19 de agosto de 1926. (Registro Oficial, 1926, No. 128, p. 1168.)

[Regulations respecting the tonnage of vessels. Approved by Decree of 19 August 1926.]

* Reglamento de dotación para los buques de la marina mercante nacional. Aprobado por decreto de 19 de agosto de 1926. (Registro Oficial, 1926, No. 128, p. 1170.)

[Regulations for the crews of the national mercantile marine. Approved by Decree of 19 August 1926.]

FRANCE

* Décret portant règlement d'administration publique pour l'application de

la loi du 23 avril 1919 sur la journée de huit heures dans les Halles centrales de Paris. Du 17 décembre 1926. (J. O., 1927, No. 1, p. 83.)

Décret modifiant le décret du 22 septembre 1913, modifié relatif à l'organisation du corps des inspecteurs du travail. Du 24 décembre 1926. (J. O., 1927, No. 6, p. 372.)

Arrêté modifiant l'arrêté du 28 août 1923 déterminant, pour les marchés de travaux publics à exécuter dans le département de la Seine, les conditions auxquelles doivent satisfaire, pour être agréées, les caisses de compensation ou autres institutions constituées entre chefs d'entreprises en vue du service des allocations familiales. Du 31 décembre 1926. (J. O., 1927, No. 2, p. 181.)

FRENCH GUINEA

* Arrêté du Lieutenant-Gouverneur fixant en Guinée française certaines modalités d'application du décret du 22 octobre 1925, réglementant le travail indigène en Afrique occidentale française. Du 30 août 1926. (Journal officiel de la Guinée française, 1926, p. 335.)

GERMANY

Laws

Gesetz über den Vertrag zwischen dem Deutschen Reiche und der Lettländischen Republik zur Regelung der wirtschaftlichen Beziehungen zwischen Deutschland und Lettland. Vom 19. November 1926. (R. G. Bl., II, 1926, No. 46, p. 631.)

* Gesetz zur Aenderung der Verordnung über Erwerbslosenfürsorge. Vom 10. Dezember 1926. (R. G. Bl., I, 1926, No. 64, p. 493.)

Weiteres Gesetz zur Verlängerung der Geltungsdauer der Verordnung über Lohnpfändung. Vom 17. Dezember 1926. (R. G. Bl., I, 1926, No. 66, p. 503.)

* Arbeitsgerichtsgesetz. Vom 23. Dezember 1926. (R. G. Bl., I, 1926, No. 68, p. 507.)

Gesetz zur Regelung der Sozialversicherung und der Erwerbslosenfürsorge der bei Reparationsarbeiten im Ausland beschäftigten Arbeitnehmer. Vom 24. Dezember 1926. (R. G. Bl., I, 1926, No. 70, p. 531.)

Gesetz über Aenderung des Gesetzes zur Abänderung des Gesetzes über Einstellung des Personalabbaues und Aenderung der Personal-Abbau-Verordnung. Vom 28. Dezember 1926. (R. G. Bl., I, 1926, No. 70, p. 531.)

Orders

Anordnung über weitere Verlängerung der Kurzarbeiterfürsorge. Vom 25. November 1926. (R. G. Bl., I, 1926, No. 63, p. 491.)

Dritte Verordnung zur Durchführung des Gesetzes über die Ablösung öffentlicher Anleihen. Vom 4. Dezember 1926. (R. Arb. Bl., 1926, No. 48, p. 418.)

Verordnung über die den Ausgabestellen der Angestelltenversicherung zu gewährende Vergütung. Vom 24. Dezember 1926. (R. G. Bl., I, 1926, No. 70, p. 532.)

Verordnung über das Ausserkrafttreten des Artikel 17 der Personal-Abbau-Verordnung. Vom 24. Dezember 1926. (R. G. Bl., I, 1926, No. 70, p. 532.)

GILBERT AND ELLICE ISLANDS COLONY

An Ordinance to amend the Employees Control Ordinance 1923. No. 2 of 1926. Dated 29 April 1926.

GOLD COAST COLONY

Rule No. 25 of 1926. Rules with respect to the Registration, Identification, and Licensing of domestic servants; under the Regulations of Employment Ordi-

nance, 1921. Dated 7 October 1926. (Gold Coast Gazette (Extraordinary), 1926, No. 77, p. 1547.)

Ashanti

Rule No. 7 of 1926. Under the Regulation of Employment Ordinance 1921, as applied to Ashanti. Dated 21 October 1926. (Gold Coast Gazette, 1926, No. 81, p. 1677.)

Northern Territories

Rule No. 6 of 1926. Under the Regulation of Employment Ordinance, 1921, as applied to the Northern Territories. Dated 21 October 1926. (Gold Coast Gazette, 1926, No. 81, p. 1678.)

GREAT BRITAIN

The Unemployment Insurance (Insurance Industry Special Scheme) (Variation and Amendment) Special Order, 1926, dated 13 November 1926, made by the Minister of Labour under the Unemployment Insurance Act, 1920 (10 & 11 Geo. V, ch. 30). (S. R. & O., 1926, No. 1460.)

The National Health Insurance (Exempt Persons) Amendment Regulations, 1926, dated 20 November 1926, made by the National Health Insurance Joint Committee, the Minister of Health, and the Scottish Board of Health, under the National Health Insurance Act, 1924 (14 & 15 Geo. V, ch. 38). (S. R. & O., 1926, No. 1505.)

Order in Council further postponing the commencement of the Merchant Shipping (Convention) Act, 1914 (4 & 5 Geo. V, ch. 50), until 1 January 1928. Dated 2 December 1926. (S. R. & O., 1926, No. 1512.)

The National Health Insurance (Navy, Army and Air Force) Amendment Regulations (No. 2), 1926, dated 3 December 1926, made by the National Health Insurance Joint Committee under the National Health Insurance Act, 1924, and section 5 (2) of the National Health Insurance Act, 1926, with respect to the Navy, Army, and Air Force Insurance Fund. (S. R. & O., 1926, No. 1550.)

The Trade Board (Milk Distributive) Order, 1926, Special Order, dated 4 December 1926, made by the Minister of Labour under sections 1 and 2 of the Trade Boards Act, 1918 (8 & 9 Geo. V, ch. 32) altering the description of the milk distributive trade contained in the Appendix to the Trade Boards (Milk Distributive) Order, 1920. (S. R. & O., 1926, No. 1539.)

The National Health Insurance (Approved Societies) Amendment Regulations, 1926, dated 13 December 1926, made by the National Health Insurance Joint Committee under section 5 (3) of the National Health Insurance Act, 1926 (16 & 17 Geo. V, ch. 9). (S. R. & O., 1926, No. 1578.)

An Act to amend section eleven of the Industrial Assurance Act, 1923, with respect to the exemption from that Act of juvenile societies. (16 & 17 Geo. V, ch. 35.) Dated 15 December 1926.

Housing (Rural Workers) Act, 1926. Assented to 15 December 1926. (Parliamentary Debates, 1926, No 151, p. 287.)

Small Holdings and Allotments Act, 1926. Assented to 15 December 1926. (Parliamentary Debates, 1926, No. 151, p. 2978.)

Order Q (34), dated 20 December 1926, confirming the variation of General Minimum Time Rates, Piece-Work Basis Time Rates and Overtime Rates for female workers employed as Dippers, and specifying 3 January 1927 as the date from which such rates should become effective. [Stamped or Pressed Metal Wares Trade Board.] (Ministry of Labour Gazette, No. 1, 1927, p. 41.)

* Order, dated 24 December 1926, made by the Secretary of State under section 3 of the Lead Paint (Protection against Poisoning) Act, 1926 (16 & 17 Geo. V, ch. 37). (S. R. & O., 1926, No. 1620.)

* Rule, dated 24 December 1926, made by the Secretary of State, as to the method of treatment to be applied for the purpose of ascertaining whether any paint or other material used in painting is " Lead Paint " within the meaning of

the Lead Paint (Protection against Poisoning) Act, 1926 (16 & 17 Geo. V, ch. 37). (S. R. & O., 1926, No. 1621.)

The National Health Insurance (Deposit Contributors) Amendment Regulations (No. 2), 1926, dated 29 December 1926, made by the National Health Insurance Joint Committee, the Minister of Health, and the Scottish Board of Health, acting jointly, under the National Health Insurance Acts, 1924 and 1926. (S. R. & O., 1926, No. 1664.)

England and Wales

The Trade Boards (Milk Distributive Trade, England and Wales) (Amendment) Regulations, 1926, dated 31 December 1926, made by the Minister of Labour under section 11 of the Trade Boards Act, 1909 (9 Edw. VII, ch. 22). (S. R. & O., 1926, No. 1657.)

Northern Ireland

Order N.I.H.H.G. (30 and 31), dated 1 December 1926, confirming certain minimum rates of wages as varied for male and female workers in the linen and cotton handkerchief and household goods and linen piece goods trade in Northern Ireland, and specifying 3 January 1927 as the effective date. (Ministry of Labour Gazette, 1927, No. 1, p. 41.)

Scotland

The Trade Boards (Milk Distributive Trade, Scotland) (Amendment) Regulations, 1926, dated 31 December 1926, made by the Minister of Labour under section 11 of the Trade Boards Act, 1909 (9 Edw. VII, ch. 22). (S. R. & O., 1926, No. $\frac{1658}{S.51}$.)

HUNGARY

* A m. kir. kereskedelemügyi miniszternek 1926. évi 67674/XXII. szamu rendelete a gyarakban alkalmazni kivant gyermekek és diatalkoruak hatosagi orvosi megvizsgalasa targyaban. 1926. évi oktober 19-an. (Budapesti Közlöny, 1926, 243. szam, 4. lap.)

[Order No. 67674/XXII of the Minister of Commerce respecting the medical examination of children and young persons prior to employment in factories. Dated 19 October 1926.]

A m. kir. földmivelésügyi miniszter 1926. évi 75500/VI. 1. szamu rendelete az Orszagos Cazdasagi Munkaspéntarnal az 1927 évre szolo kötelezö biztositasok eszközlése targyaban. 1926. évi oktober 20-an. (Budapesti Közlöny, 1926, 244. szam, 1. lap.)

[Order No. 75500/VI. 1. 1926 of the Minister of Agriculture concerning the carrying out of the liability to insure in the National Agricultural Workers' Fund for the year 1927. Dated 20 October 1926.]

A m kir. földmivelésügyi miniszter 76513. 1926. VI. 1. szamu rendelete az Orszagos Gazdasagi Munkaspénztarnal üzemi baleset esetére biztositott egyének balesetének a rendörhatosagnal valo bejelentése targyaban. 1926. évi november 2-an. (Budapesti Közlöny, 1926, 255. szam, 1. lap.)

[Order No. 76513/1926/VI. 1. of the Minister of Agriculture respecting notification to the police authorities of accidents occurring to members of the National Agricultural Workers' Fund insured against industrial accidents. Dated 2 November 1926.]

* A m. kir. földmivelésügyi miniszter 77000. 1926. szamu rendelete a hatosagi gazdasagi munkaközvetités ujjaszervezése targyaban. 1926. évi november hó 17-én. (Budapesti Közlöny, 1926, 276. szam, 3. lap.)

[Order No. 77000/1926 of the Minister of Agriculture respecting the reorganisation of public employment exchanges for agriculture. Dated 17 November 1926.]

A m. kir. földmivelésügyi miniszter 76000/1926. szamu rendelete a gazdasagi munkavallalkozokrol és segédmunkasokrol szolo 1899 : XLII. törvénycikk végrehajtasarol és az eljarasi szabalyok megallapitasarol rendelkezo 3400/1900. F.M.

eln. szamu rendelet kiegészitése targyaban. 1926. évi november 17-én. (Budapesti Közlöny, 1926, 276. szam, 2. lap.)

[Order No. 76000/1926 of the Minister of Agriculture to supplement Order No. 3400/1900 F.M. respecting Act No. XLII of 1899 concerning persons carrying on agricultural undertakings and concerning agricultural employees and the establishment of rules of procedure. Dated 17 November 1926.]

* A m. kir. földmivelésügyi miniszter 75000. 1926. szamu rendelete a gazdasagi munkastoborzas szabalyozasa targyaban. 1926. évi november ho 17-én. (Budapesti Közlöny, 1926, 276. szam, p. 1.)

[Order No. 75000/1926 of the Minister of Agriculture concerning the regulation of the recruiting of agricultural workers. Dated 17 November 1926.]

A m. kir. minisztériumnak 10366/1926. M.E. szamu rendelete a mézögazdasagi munkasok munkaereje jogosulation kihasznalasanal meggatlasarol szolo 1923: XXV. t.-c. 2-14. §-ai hatalyanak az 1927. évre kiterjesztése targyaban. 1926. évi november ho 19-napjan. (Budapesti Közlöny, 1926, 278. szam, 1. lap.)

[Order No. 10366/1926 M.E. respecting the extension to 1927 of the application of sections 2-14 of Act No. XXV of 1923 respecting the prevention of the unjustifiable exploitation of the labour of agricultural workers. Dated 19 November 1926.]

A m. kir. népjoléti és munkaügyi miniszter 3596/eln. 1926. N.M.M. szamu rendelete a betegségi és a baleseti biztositasban alkalmazott bérhatarok uj megallapitasa és a betegségi biztositasi napibérosztalyokra vonatkozo rendelkezések modositasa targyaban. 1926. évi december ho 3-napjan. (Budapesti Közlöny, 1926, 279. szam, 1. lap.)

[Order No. 3596/eln. 1926 N.M.M. of the Ministry of Social Welfare and Labour respecting the re-fixing of wage limits for purposes of sickness and accident insurance and respecting the amendment of the Orders relating to the daily wage classes for the purposes of sickness insurance. Dated 3 December 1926.]

A m. kir. népjoléti és munkaügyi miniszter 3898/eln. 1926. N.M.M. szamu rendelete. a m. kir. postatakarékpénztar betegségi biztosito intézetének alapszabalya targyaban. 1926. évi december ho 3-án. (Budapesti Közlöny, 1926, 281. szam, 1. lap.)

[Order No. 3896/eln. 1926 N.M.M. of the Ministry of Social Welfare respecting the rules of the Sickness Insurance Fund of the Hungarian Post Office Savings Bank. Dated 3 December 1926.]

A m. kir. minisztérium 10900/1926. M.E. szamu rendelete a m. kir. postatakarékpénztar alkalmazottainak betegségi biztositasarol. 1926. évi december hó 3-án. (Budapesti Közlöny, 1926, 281. szam, 1. lap.)

[Order No. 10900/1926 M.E. of the Council of Ministers respecting the sickness insurance of the employees of the Hungarian Post Office Savings Bank. Dated 3 December 1926.]

A m. kir. minisztérium 11200/1926. M.E. szamu rendelete a betegségi és a balesetbiztositas ideiglenes szabalyozasarol szolo 5400/1919. M.E. szamu rendelet kiegészitése és modositasa targyaban. 1926. évi december hó 3-án. (Budapesti Közlöny, 1926, 289. szám, 1. lap.)

[Order No. 11200/1926 M.E. of the Council of Ministers to supplement and amend Order No. 5400/1919 M.E. respecting the provisional regulation of sickness and accident insurance. Dated 3 December 1926.]

A m. kir. népjoléti és munkaügyi miniszter 135000/1926. N.M.M. szamu rendelete az Orszagos Munkasbiztosito Pénztar Alkalmazottainak Nyugdijintézeténél fennallott nyugdijigényüket önkéntes tovabbfizetéssel fenntarto, volt munkasbiztosito pénztari alkalmazottak nyugdijügyének rendezése targyaban. 1926. évi december ho 16-án. (Budapesti Közlöny, 1926, 288. szam, 1. lap.)

[Order of the Minister of Social Welfare and Labour No. 135000/1926 N.M.M. to regulate questions relating to the pensions of former employees of the Workers' Insurance Fund who have by voluntary contributions maintained their claim to a pension from the Pension Fund for Employees of the National Workers' Insurance Fund. Dated 16 December 1926.]

M. kir. miniszterium 11111/1926. M.E. szamu rendelete, a kisebb határszéli gazdasagi forgalom szabalyozasa targyaban az Osztrak Köztarsasaggal 1926. évi

julius ho 14-én Bécsben kötött megallapodas életbeléptetéséröl. 1926 évi december ho 16-an. (Budapesti Közlöny, 1926, 292. szam, 8. lap.)

[Order No. 11111/1926 M.E. of the Council of Ministers respecting the coming into operation of the Convention between the Kingdom of Hungary and the Republic of Austria concluded in Vienna on 14 July 1926 concerning facilities for frontier traffic. Dated 16 December 1926.]

A m. kir. népjoléti és munkaügyi miniszter 4400/eln. 1926. N.M.M. sz. rendelete a banyatörvény ala esö üzemekben és az ezekkel kapesolatos ipari üzemekben foglalkozo munkasoknak és altiszteknek, valamint ezek esaladtagjainak nyugbérbiztositasarol. 1926. évi december hó 23-napjan. (Budapesti Közlöny, 1926, 295. szam, 5. lap.)

[Order No. 4400/eln. N.M.M. of the Minister of Social Welfare and Labour respecting the pension insurance of workers and subordinate officials employed in establishments covered by the Mines Act and in industrial establishments connected therewith, and of the members of the families of such workers and officials. Dated 23 December 1926.]

A m. kir. népjoléti és munkaügyi miniszter 4300/eln. 1926. N.M.M. sz. rendelete a 11200/1926. M.E. szamu rendelet II. fejezetében megszabott bejelentési és nyilvantartasi kötelezettség targyaban. 1926. évi december hó 24-én. (Budapesti Közlöny, 1926, 299. szam, 1. lap.)

[Order of the Minister of Social Welfare and Labour No. 4300/1926 respecting the duty of notification and the keeping of registers up to date prescribed in chapter II of Order No. 11200/1926. Dated 24 December 1926.]

A m. kir. népjoléti és munkaügyi miniszter 4191/eln. 1926. N.M.M. szamu rendelete a betegségi és a baleseti biztositasban alkalmazott bérhatarok uj megallapitasa és a betegségi biztositasi napibérosztalyokra vonatkozo rendelkezések modositasa targyaban kiadott 3596/eln. 1926. N.M.M. szamu rendelet modositasarol. 1926. évi december ho 29-én. (Budapesti Közlöny, 1926, 298. szam, 3. lap.)

[Order No. 4191/eln. 1926 N.M.M. of the Minister of Social Welfare and Labour to amend Order No. 3596 eln. 1926 to fix afresh the wage limit for purposes of sickness and accident insurance and to amend the provisions respecting daily wage classes for purposes of sickness insurance. Dated 29 December 1926.]

IRISH FREE STATE

* Acht um Arachas Slainte Naisiunta, 1926 (Uimh. 44 de '26).

National Health Insurance Act, 1926 (No. 44 of '26.) [King's Assent 24 December 1926.]

ITALY

Laws

Legge 25 novembre 1926, n. 2044 : Conversione in legge del R. decreto-legge 22 novembre 1925, n. 2536, riguardante la sistemazione ed il trattamento del personale navigante dipendente dalle Ferrovie dello Stato adibito ai piroscafi postali. (Numero di pubblicazione : 2354.) (G. U., 1926, No. 287, p. 5407.)

[Act No. 2044 : Conversion into an Act of Legislative Decree No. 2536 of 22 November 1925 respecting the organisation and conditions of service of navigating staff attached to the State railways and employed on mail boats. Dated 25 November 1926.]

Legge 25 novembre 1926, n. 2087 : Conversione in legge del R. decreto-legge 10 marzo 1926, n. 386, contenente provvedimenti per la costruzione di case popolari. (Numero di pubblicazione : 2387.) (G. U., 1926, No. 291, p. 5471.)

[Act No. 2087 : Conversion into an Act of Legislative Decree No. 386 of 10 March 1926 containing provisions for the construction of cheap houses. Dated 25 November 1926.]

* Regio decreto-legge 21 ottobre 1926, n. 1904 : Modifiche alla legge 10 dicembre 1925, n. 2277, sulla protezione e l'assistenza della maternità e dell' infanzia. (Numero di pubblicazione : 2222.) (G. U., 1926, No. 269, p. 5094.)

[Legislative Decree No. 1904 to amend Act No. 2277 of 10 December 1925 respecting maternity and child welfare. Dated 21 October 1926.]

Regio Decreto-Legge 25 novembre 1926, n. 2052 : Disposizioni integrative per il riordinamento della Cassa nazionale d'assicurazione per gli infortuni sul lavoro. (Numero di pubblicazione : 2347.) (G. U., 1926, No. 286, p. 5396.)

[Legislative Decree No. 2052 : Supplementary provisions respecting the reorganisation of the National Industrial Accident Insurance Institution. Dated 25 November 1926.]

* Regio Decreto-Legge 5 dicembre 1926, n. 2051 : Modificazioni alla legge 31 gennaio 1904, n. 51, per gli infortuni degli operai sul lavoro. (Numero di pubblicazione : 2346.) (G. U., 1926, No. 286, p. 5395.)

[Legislative Decree No. 2051 to amend Act No. 51 of 31 January 1904 concerning industrial accidents. Dated 5 December 1926.]

Orders

Regio Decreto 7 ottobre 1926, n. 1902 : Approvazione di modificazioni al regolamento di pilotaggio. (Numero di pubblicazione : 2209.) (G. U., 1926, No. 267, p. 5046

[Royal Decree No. 1902 to amend the Pilotage Regulations. Dated 7 October 1926.]

Regio Decreto 14 ottobre 1926, n. 1900 : Riconoscimento giuridico della Federazione fascista autonoma degli addetti ai trasporti marittimi ed aerei. (Numero di pubblicazione : 2234.)

[Royal Decree No. 1900 : Legal recognition of the autonomous Fascist Federation of the Staff of Maritime and Air Transport Undertakings. Dated 14 October 1926.]

Regio Decreto 14 ottobre 1926, n. 1901 : Riconoscimento giuridico della Confederazione nazionale fascista imprese trasporti marittimi ed aerei. (Numero di pubblicazione : 2221.) (G. U., 1926, No. 269, p. 5066.)

[Royal Decree No. 1901 : Legal recognition of the National Fascist Confederation of Maritime and Air Transport Undertakings. Dated 14 October 1926.]

Regio Decreto 24 ottobre 1926, n. 1908 : Riconoscimento giuridico della Confederazione nazionale fascista dei trasporti terrestri e della navigazione interna. (Numero di pubblicazione : 2232.) (G. U., 1926, No. 270, p. 5114.)

[Royal Decree No. 1908 : Legal recognition of the Fascist Confederation of Land Transport and Inland Navigation. Dated 24 October 1926.]

* Regio Decreto 11 novembre 1926, n. 1936 : Riforme allo statuto dell' " Opera nazionale Dopolavoro ". (Numero di pubblicazione : 2240.) (G. U., 1926, No. 271, p. 5154.)

[Royal Decree No. 1936 to amend the rules of the National Institution for Workers' Leisure. Dated 11 November 1926.]

Regio Decreto 14 novembre 1926, n. 2023 : Modificazioni al regolamento per l'esecuzione del Codice per la marina mercantile. (Numero di pubblicazione : 2330.) (G. U., 1926, No. 284, p. 5370.)

[Royal Decree No. 2023 to amend the administrative regulations under the Mercantile Marine Code. Dated 14 November 1926.]

Regio Decreto 18 novembre 1926, n. 2022 : Modificazione al regolamento di pilotaggio (limite di età dei piloti). (Numero di pubblicazione : 2329.) (G. U., 1926, No. 284, p. 5369.)

[Royal Decree No. 2022 to amend the Pilotage Regulations (age limit of pilots). Dated 18 November 1926.]

Decreto Ministeriale 28 novembre 1926 : Aggiunta al decreto Ministeriale 2 febbraio 1926 col quale venne istituito l'Ufficio del lavoro nel porto di Siracusa. (G. U., 1926, No. 279, p. 5289.)

[Ministerial Decree to supplement the Ministerial Decree of 2 February 1926 setting up a Labour Office in the port of Syracuse. Dated 28 November 1926.]

Regio Decreto 2 dicembre 1926 : Trasferimento alla Cassa depositi e prestiti delle attività delle gestioni assicurative tenute per conto dello Stato dall' Istituto nazionale delle assicurazioni e la sistemazione del servizio finanziario delle polizze

gratuite di assicurazione per i combattenti, sino all' assetto definitivo del servizio stesso. (G. U., 1926, No. 283, p. 5354.)

[Royal Decree concerning the transfer to the Loans and Deposits Fund of the assets of the insurance operations of the National Insurance Institution effected on account of the state and concerning the financial organisation of the system of free insurance policies for service men pending the definitive organisation of the system. Dated 2 December 1926.]

KENYA

An Ordinance to amend the Revised Edition of the Laws of the Colony in accordance with amendments in the years 1924, 1925, and 1926 to the Ordinances now included in the Revised Edition of the Laws. Dated 24 June 1926. No. VII of 1926. [Schedule of Repealed Ordinances includes Master and Servants (Amendment) Ordinances No. 15 and 18 of 1924. No. 4 of 1925. — Amendment of chapter 139 (employment of natives.]

LATVIA

* Pârgrozijumi likumâ par biedrîbâm, savienîbâm un politiskâm organizacijâm, 1926. g. 30. septembri. (Valdîbas Vêstnesis, 1926, No. 219, p. 1.)

[Amendment of the Act respecting associations and political organisations. Dated 30 September 1926.]

LITHUANIA

Ziemos zemès ûkio mokyklu istatymas. 1926 m. lapkricio men. 12 d. (Vyriausybes Zinios, 1926, No. 242, p. 1.)

[Act respecting agricultural winter schools. Dated 12 November 1926.]

Viesuju darbu lesu gavimo ir naudojimo taisykles. (Vyriausybes Zinios, 1926, No. 242, p. 2.)

[Instructions respecting the authorisation and use of credits for public works. (No date.)]

Memel Territory

* Istatymas No. 15 del darbo laiko lepyklose in cukrainese. 1926 m. lapkriczio mén. 6 d.

Gesetz Nr. 15 über die Arbeitszeit in den Bäckereien und Konditoreien. Vom 6. November 1926.

(Amtsblatt des Memelgebietes, 1926, No. 123, p. 772.)

LUXEMBURG

Loi du 27 novembre 1926 sur la compétence des justices de paix, des tribunaux d'arrondissement et des tribunaux arbitraux.

Gesetz vom 27. November 1926 über die Zuständigkeit der Friedens-, Bezirks- und Schiedsgerichte.

(Mémorial, 1926, No. 58, p. 882.)

Arrêté du 30 novembre 1926, portant fixation de la valeur moyenne des rémunérations en nature ainsi que du minimum de salaire, au point de vue de l'application de la loi du 17 décembre 1925 sur le code des assurances sociales.

Beschluss vom 30. November 1926, betreffend Festsetzung des Durchschnittswertes für Naturalabzüge sowie des Mindestverdienstes hinsichtlich der Anwendung des Gesetzes vom 17. Dezember 1925, über die Sozialversicherungsordnung.

(Mémorial, 1926, No. 57, p. 874.)

* Loi du 6 décembre 1926 sur le congé ouvrier.

Gesetz vom 6. Dezember 1926 über den Arbeiterurlaub.

(Mémorial, 1926, No. 58, p. 879.)

Arrêté grand-ducal du 20 décembre 1926 portant abrogation de l'arrêté grand-ducal du 21 août 1923 sur la réglementation de l'importation, de l'exportation et du transit des valeurs.

Grossh. Beschluss vom 20. Dezember 1926, durch den der Grossh. Beschluss vom 21. August 1923 betreffend Regelung der Ein- und Durchführ von Wertpapieren abgerufen wird.

(Mémorial, 1926, No. 61, p. 983.)

MEXICO (UNITED STATES OF)

* Codigo sanitario de los estados unidos mexicanos. 6 de marzo de 1926. (Diario Oficial, 1926, No. 31, p. 579.)

[Health Code for the United States of Mexico. Dated 6 March 1926.]

NETHERLANDS

Besluit van den 20sten October 1926, tot wijziging van het Koninklijk besluit van 13 Maart 1919 (Staatsblad no. 107) tot uitvoering van artikel 243 der Invaliditeitswet, zooals dat besluit laatstelijk is gewijzigd bij Koninklijk besluit van 13 Juni 1925 (Staatsblad no. 231). (Staatsblad, 1926, No. 363.)

[Decree to amend the Royal Decree of 13 March 1919 (Staatsblad No. 107) in pursuance of §243 of the Invalidity Act as last amended by Royal Decree of 13 June 1925 (Staatsblad No. 231). Dated 20 October 1926.]

Besluit van den 16den November 1926, tot wijziging van het Koninklijk besluit van den 17den April 1923 (Staatsblad no. 146), tot herziening van het Koninklijk besluit van 17 Maart 1921 (Staatsblad no. 538), laatstelijk gewijzigd bij Koninklijk besluit van 31 Januari 1924 (Staatsblad no. 27), tot vaststelling van een algemeenen maatregel van bestuur, als bedoeld bij de artikelen 5, 18, tweede lid, 20, tweede lid, 21, vierde lid, 22, tweede lid, 23, vierde lid, der Ouderdomswet 1919, en tot vaststelling van een algemeenen maatregel van bestour, als bedoeld in artikel XX van de wet van 19 Mei 1922 (Staatsblad no. 352). (Staatsblad, 1926, No. 377.)

[Decree to amend the Royal Decree of 17 April 1923 (Staatsblad No. 146), revising the Royal Decree of 17 March 1921 (Staatsblad No. 538) as last amended by Royal Decree of 31 January 1924 (Staatsblad No. 27), issuing public administrative regulations as provided in sections 5, 18 (2), 20 (2), 21 (4), 22 (2), and 23 (4) of the Old-Age Act, 1919, and to issue public administrative regulations as provided in section XX of the Act of 19 May 1922 (Staatsblad No. 352). Dated 16 November 1926.]

NIGERIA

Order in Council made under the Native Labour (Foreign Service) Ordinance (chapter 71 of Revised Laws 1923). No. 31 of 1926. Dated 30 October 1926. (Supplement to the Nigeria Gazette, No. 63, 18 November 1926).

NYASALAND PROTECTORATE

An Ordinance to amend the District Administration (Native) Ordinance, 1924. No. 14 of 1926. Dated 28 April 1926.

POLAND

* Ustawa z dnia 28 wrzesnia 1926 r. w sprawie zmiany brzmienia artykulow 103 i 104 ustawy o obowiazkowem ubezpieczeniu na wypadek choroby z dnia 19 maja 1920 r. (Dz. U.R.P. No. 44 poz. 272). (Dziennik Ustaw, 1926, No. 101, poz. 582, p. 1125.)

[Act to amend the text of sections 103 and 104 of the Act of 19 May 1920 respecting compulsory sickness insurance. Dated 28 September 1926.]

Rozporzadzenie Ministra Przemyslu i Handlu z dnia 29 wrzesnia 1926 r. wydane w porozumieniu z Ministrem Skarbu i Ministrem Spraw Wewnetrznych w sprawie zmianv § 7 rozporzadzenia Ministra Przemyslu i Handlu z dnia 2 grudnia 1921 r. o wysokosci i porzadku pobierania oplat za dozor kotlow. (Dziennik Ustaw, 1926, No. 101, poz. 588, p. 1130.)

[Order of the Minister of Industry and Commerce issued in agreement with the Minister of Finance and the Minister of the Interior to amend section 7 of the Order of the Minister of Industry and Commerce of 2 December 1921 respecting the amount of the fees for the inspection of boilers and procedure for the collection thereof. Dated 29 September 1926.]

Rozporzadzenie Ministra Pracy i Opieki Spolecznej z dnia 25 pazdziernika 1926 r. w sprawie wyborow czlonkow Rady Zakladu Ubezpieczenia Urzednikow Prywatnych w Poznaniu i lawnikow dla spraw ubezpieczenia urzednikow prywatnych Wyzszych Urzedow Ubezpieczen w Poznaniu i Toruniu i Trybunalu dla spraw ubezpieczen spolecznych w Poznaniu. (Dziennik Ustaw, 1926, No. 108, poz. 636, p. 1209.)

[Order of the Minister of Labour and Social Welfare respecting the election of members of the Council of the Insurance Institution for salaried employees in Poznan and of assessors for social insurance questions affecting salaried employees of superior insurance offices in Poznan and Torun and of the Social Insurance Tribunal of Poznan. Dated 25 October 1926.]

Oswiadczenie rzadowe z dnia 28 pazdziernika 1926 roku w sprawie wymiany dokumentow ratyfikacyjnych Konwencji Handlowei miedzy Rzeczapospolita Polska a Republika Czeskoslowacka, podpisanej w Warszawie dnia 23 kwietnia 1925 r. z dolaczonemi do neij zalacznikami A, B, C, D, E, F, i Protokolem koncowym z tej samej daty. (Dziennik Ustaw, 1926, No. 111, poz. 645, p. 1266.)

[Government Declaration respecting the exchange of ratifications of the Commercial Agreement between the Republic of Poland and the Czechoslovak Republic, signed at Warsaw on 23 April 1925, and Appendices A, B, C, D, E, F and the additional Protocol of the same date. Dated 28 October 1926.]

Silesia

Rozporzadzenie Rady Wojewodzkiej z dnia 1. Czerwca 1926 roku w sprawie zmiany rozporzadzenia wykonawczego Rady Wojewodzkiej z dnia 16. czerwca 1925 roku do ustawy Sejmu Slaskiego z 12. marca 1924 r (Dz. U. Sl. No. 8, poz. 31) w przedmiocie kredytow na budowe domow przez kooperatywy (Dz. U. Sl. No. 8, poz. 21). (Dziennik Ustaw Slaskich, 1926, No. 15, poz. 25.)

[Instructions of the Provincial Council to amend the Administrative Order of the Provincial Council of 16 June 1925 under the Act of the Silesian Diet of 12 March 1924 respecting the building of houses by co-operative societies. Dated 1 June 1926.]

PORTUGAL

Decreto no. 11814 : Autoriza o Govêrno a negociar e assinar acordos ou convençoes com Governos estrangeiros acêrca da reciprocidade de reconhecimento de legislaçao maritima quando dêsses acordos ou convençoes resultam manifestas vantagens para a navegaçao nacional, tendendo sobretudo a evitar demoras e despesas aos navios portugueses em portos estrangeiros. 30 de Junho de 1926. (Diário do Govêrno, 1926, I Série, No. 140, p. 664.)

[Decree No. 11814 to authorise the Government to negotiate and sign agreements or conventions with other Governments to provide for reciprocal recognition of maritime laws, in cases where such agreements or conventions would obviously be advantageous to national shipping and in particular would tend to prevent delays and expenses for Portuguese vessels in foreign ports. Dated 30 June 1926.]

Decreto no. 12499 B : Promulga a carta orgânica da colonia de Moçambique. 4 de Outubro de 1926. (Diario do Govêrno, 1926. No. 257, p. 1889.)

[Decree No. 12499 B promulgating the Constitution of the Colony of Mozambique. Dated 4 October 1926.]

Decreto no. 12674 : Regula e desempenho dos serviços relativos as relaçoes

entre o Govêrno Português e a Sociedade das Naçoes. 6 de Novembro de 1926. (Diario do Govêrno, 1926, No. 257, p. 1886.)

[Decree No. 12674 to regulate the working of the services dealing with the relations between the Portuguese Government and the League of Nations. Dated 6 November 1926.]

Decreto no. 12675 : Fixa o limite de idade para a aposentaçao dos funcionarios civis dos quadros dos serviços publicos das colonias. 17 de Novembro de 1926. (Diario de Govêrno, 1926, No. 257, p. 1888.)

[Decree No. 12675 to fix the age limit for the retirement of civil servants in the colonial services. Dated 17 November 1926.]

Decreto no. 12867 : Aprova o regulamento das caldeiras maritimas. 22 de Novembro de 1926. (Diario do Govêrno, 1926, No. 286, p. 2265.)

[Decree No. 12867 : Approval of the regulations for ships' boilers. Dated 22 November 1926.]

PRINCE EDWARD ISLAND

An Act to provide compensation for injury to railway employees and to the dependants of those who are killed. (16 Geo. V, ch. 22.) Assented to 31 March 1926. (Acts of Prince Edward Island, 1926, p. 91.)

ROUMANIA

Decret : se aproba Regulament pentru aplicarea legli de politie sanitara veterinara cu modificarile ei din 5 Ianuarie 1926. 16 Decemvrie 1926. (Monitorul Oficial, 1926, No. 290, p. 19666.)

[Decree issuing regulations under the Veterinary Act as amended by the Act of 5 January 1926. Dated 16 December 1926.]

SERB-CROAT-SLOVENE KINGDOM

Regulations respecting the utilisation of leave of officials and employees in the Ministry of the Interior. Dated 18 October 1926. (Sluzbene Novine, 1926, Nos. 250-LXII, 259-LXIII).

Regulations respecting the supplementary allowances of the staff of the state transport undertakings. (No date.) (Sluzbene Novine, 1926, No. 265-LXV.)

SIERRA LEONE

An Ordinance to amend the Protectorate Ordinance, 1924. No. 9 of 1926. Dated 14 April 1926.

[Persons declared free. Claims relating to slaves not to be entertained.]

SPAIN

Real orden estableciendo en el Consejo de la Economia Nacional un Comité Regulador de la Producción industrial. 4 de noviembre de 1926. (Gaceta de Madrid, 1926, No. 309, p. 739.)

[Royal Order to set up in the Council of National Economy a Committee for the regulation of industrial production. Dated 4 November 1926.]

Real decreto aprobando el Reglamento, que se inserta, para el desenvolvimiento y funciones de Comité regulador de la Producción Industrial, establecido por Real Orden de 4 de Noviembre último. 3 de diciembre de 1926. (Gaceta de Madrid, 1926, No. 342, p. 1290.)

[Royal Decree to approve the Regulations appended thereto for the working of the Committee for the Regulation of Industrial Production set up by Royal Order of 4 November 1926. Dated 3 December 1926.]

Real orden (rectificada) dictando las reglas que se insertan para la aplicación

del Estatuto de las Clases pasivas del Estado. 11 de diciembre de 1926. (Gaceta de Madrid, 1926, No. 348, p. 1425.)

[Royal Order (corrected edition) issuing regulations for the administration of the rules for persons in receipt of state pensions. Dated 11 December 1926.]

Real orden declarando subsistente la disposición adicional a la Ley de 10 de Enero de 1922 sobre régimen de sanciones por infracción de la leyes reguladoras del trabajo. 15 de diciembre de 1926. (Gaceta de Madrid, 1926, No. 360, p. 1705.)

[Royal Order to provide that the additional provision of the Act of 10 January 1922, respecting penalties for contraventions of labour legislation, shall continue in operation. Dated 15 December 1926.]

Real decreto de 24 de diciembre de 1926 diponiendo que las dependencias y servicios centrales del Ministerio de Trabajo, Comercio e Industria, queden organizados en la forma que se indica. (Gaceta de Madrid, 1926, No. 365, p. 1804.)

[Royal Decree to reorganise the central services and dependencies of the Ministry of Labour, Commerce, and Industry. Dated 24 December 1926.]

SWEDEN

Arbetsradets kungörelse med formulär till journal enligt 8 § lagen om arbetstidens begränsning den 4 juni 1926. Den 22 november 1926. (Svensk Författningssamling, 1926, No. 469, p. 981.)

[Notification of the Labour Council, issuing a model for the register under section 8 of the Act of 4 June 1926 respecting hours of work. Dated 22 November 1926.]

Kungl. Maj:ts Kungörelse angaende tjänstgöringstiden för personalen vid statens järnvägars angfärjor med hjälpfartyg. Den 10 december 1926. (Svensk Författningssamling, 1926, No. 487, p. 1027.)

[Royal Notification respecting the hours of work of the crews of steam ferries and auxiliary vessels belonging to the state railways. Dated 10 December 1926.]

Kungl. Maj:ts Kungörelse angaende gottgörelse för läkarunder-sökning av maleriaarbetare enligt lagen den 19 februari 1926 (nr 21) angaende förbud i vissa fall mot arbetares användande till malningsarbete, vid vilket nyttjas blyfäarg. Den 10 december 1926. (Svensk Författningssamling, 1926, No. 496, p. 1037.)

[Royal Notification respecting the reimbursement of the cost of the medical examination of working painters in conformity with the Act No. 21 of 19 February 1926 to prohibit in certain cases the employment of workers in painting work in which lead colours are used. Dated 10 December 1926.]

UNION OF SOUTH AFRICA

Government Notice No. 2116 under section nine of the Industrial Conciliation Act, No. 11 of 1924, notifying that from 1 December 1926, and for the period ending 30 November 1927, the terms of the agreement published in the Schedule to the Notice shall be binding upon all employers and employees in the leather industries in the Union of South Africa. Dated 19 November 1926. (Union of South Africa Government Gazette, 1926, Vol. LXVI, No. 1590, p. 466.)

Government Notice No. 2204 under section nine of the Industrial Conciliation Act, No. 11 of 1924, notifying that from 13 December 1926, and for the period ending 30 September 1927, the terms of the agreement published as a schedule to the Notice, with the exception of clause 7, shall be binding upon all employers and employees in the furniture industry in the Union of South Africa. Dated 3 December 1926. (Union of South Africa Government Gazette, 1926, Vol. LXVI, No. 1592, p. 596.)

URUGUAY

Ley de 19 de Octubre de 1926 : Se establece que los prácticos de los rios y puertos nacionales que tengan el certificado de competencia quedan sujetos a las dis-

posiciones de la ley de Octubre de 1919 sobre Jubilaciones y Pensiones de Empleados y Obreros de Servicios Públicos. (Diario Oficial, 1926, No. 6141, p. 282-A.)

[Act to provide that pilots on Uruguayan rivers and in Uruguayan ports holding a certificate of capacity shall be covered by the Act of October 1919 respecting pensions and superannuation allowances of wage-earning and salaried employees in the public services. Dated 19 October 1926.]

Ley de 20 de Octubre de 1926 : Se establecen la computación de sueldo y beneficios que gozaran los funcionarios amparados por las leyes de Jubilaciones y Pensiones Escolares a los efectos de la jubilación. (Diario Oficial, 1926, No. 6141, p. 283-A.)

[Act to fix the method of calculating the salaries and allowances of civil servants covered by the Teachers' Superannuation and Pensions Acts for the purposes of a pension. Dated 20 October 1926.]

Ley de 10 de Diciembre de 1926 : Se establecen condiciones para que los empleados y obreros que reingresen a las empresas tengan derecho a la jubilación y causen pensión. (Diario Oficial, 1926, No. 6182, p. 612-A.)

[Act prescribing the conditions under which wage-earning and salaried employees returning to their undertakings shall be entitled to a superannuation allowance and their survivors to a pension. Dated 10 December 1926.]

ZANZIBAR

A Decree to make provision for the establishment of reformatories and for dealing with youthful offenders and youthful vagrants. No. 4 of 1926. Dated 26 February 1926.

Book Notes

INTERNATIONAL PUBLICATIONS

International Labour Office. *The Conciliation and Arbitration of Industrial Disputes. An International Survey.* Geneva, 1927. 69 pp. 1s.; 25 cents.

This Survey was published in the *International Labour Review*, Vol. XIV, Nos 5-6, Vol. XV, No. 1.

—— *International Survey of Legal Decisions on Labour Law 1925.* Geneva, 1926. 268 pp. 8s.; $2.00.

From 1920 onwards the International Labour Office has published in its *Legislative Series* the labour legislation adopted in the different countries. But mere knowledge of the clauses of a law gives no adequate idea of its actual effects, and the wish has repeatedly been expressed that information might also be published concerning the application of these laws by the competent authorities, and particularly by the Courts which deal with industrial matters. It will be recognised that the publication of an international collection answering this purpose presented special difficulties. For that reason the International Labour Office thought it wise at first to limit its investigation and confine the collection for 1925 to four countries: England, France, Germany, and Italy. The legal decisions of these countries represent, in fact, the most important European legal systems. In the selection of legal decisions, preference has been given to those concerning questions of legal principle which might facilitate the development of labour legislation in other countries, and are thus of international importance. The method of presentation generally adopted has been to give the essential points of the judgement, preceded as a rule by either the exact text or a summary of the statement of the facts and of the law involved, with explanatory notes where necessary. The reports have been grouped under the following headings: general principles of labour law; right of association; participation of workmen in the management of the works (works councils); individual contracts; collective agreements; salaries and wages; hours of work; labour disputes; procedure in labour cases; protection and special rights of specified occupational groups; protection of women, young persons and children, and men disabled in war; placing and unemployment; inspection of labour; social insurance; miscellaneous. This publication has been prepared with the collaboration of Professors H. C. Gutteridge, Heinrich Hoeniger, Edouard Lambert, Luigi Rossi, and other jurists.

Permanent Court of International Justice. *Application instituting Proceedings concerning the Chorzow Factory (indemnities), and addressed to the Registrar of the Court, in conformity with Article 40 of the Statute, through the intermediary of the German Legation at The Hague, on 8 February 1927.* Leyden, A. W. Sijthoff, 1927. 7 pp.

—— *Extracts from International Agreements affecting the Jurisdiction of the Court.* Third edition. Series D, No. 5. Leyden, A. W. Sijthoff, 1926.

—— *Request for Advisory Opinion transmitted to the Court under the Resolution of the Council of the League of Nations of 9 December 1926, with the text of that Resolution. Competence of the European Commission of the Danube.* Leyden, A. W. Sijthoff, 1926. 15 pp.

—— *Revision of the Rules of the Court. Acts and Documents concerning the Organisation of the Court.* Series D. Addendum to No. 2. Leyden, A. W. Sijthoff, 1926. 351 pp.

Institut international d'Agriculture. *Actes de la huitième Assemblée générale*

19-26 avril 1926. Rome, Imprimerie de l'Institut International d'Agriculture, 1926. 934 pp.

The eighth Assembly of the International Institute of Agriculture, held in 1926, was a very important one. It was convened for the purpose of extending the Institute's programme of work, especially in the domain of international agreements ; and its transactions are therefore of considerable interest.

The general Report of the President, Mr. de Michelis, Italian Government Representative on the Governing Body of the International Labour Office, contains a description of the organisation, working, activities and general policy of the Institute. Chapter VI deals with the Institute's relations with the League of Nations and with the International Labour Office.

The decisions and resolutions of the Assembly are appended.

Internationale Union der Lebensmittelarbeiter. *Die Durchschnittswochenlöhne der Lebensmittelarbeiterschaft am 1. August 1926.* Zurich. 11 pp.

A comparative statement, showing the average weekly wages of persons employed in the food and drink trades in various countries, on 1 August 1926. Issued by the International Union of Federations of Workers in the Food and Drink Trades.

Secrétariat International des Typographes. *Rapport Annuel pour 1925.* Bern, Unionsdruckerei Bern (Genossenschaft), 1926. 101 pp.

OFFICIAL PUBLICATIONS

ARGENTINA

Ministerio de Relaciones exteriores y Culto. *Tratados y Convenciones vigentes en la Nación argentina.* Tomo II. *Acuerdos plurilaterales.* Buenos Aires, Imprenta y Casa editora "Coni", 1926. 667 pp.

A collection of international agreements entered into between the Argentine Republic and various foreign countries.

AUSTRIA

Bundesministerium für soziale Verwaltung. Arbeiter-Unfallversicherungsanstalt für Wien, Niederösterreich und Burgenland in Wien. *Bericht des Vorstandes an den Bundesminister über die Zeit vom 1. Januar bis 31. Dezember 1925.* Vienna, Selbstverlage der Anstalt, 1926. 56 pp.

Report submitted to the Minister of Social Administration by the Committee set up to consider preliminary measures for workers' accident insurance.

BELGIUM

HAINAUT

Université du Travail, Charleroi. *Rapport de la Direction.* Année scolaire 1925-1926. 1926. 50 pp.

CANADA

Department of Labour. *Report of the Department of Labour for the fiscal year ending 31 March 1926.* Ottawa, F. A. Acland, 1926. 121 pp.

SASKATCHEWAN

Bureau of Labour and Industries. *Sixth Annual Report of the Bureau of Labour and Industries of the Province of Saskatchewan for the Twelve Months ended 30 April 1926.* Regina, J. W. Reid, 1926. 58 pp.

CHILE

Ministerio de Higiene, Asistencia, Previsión Social y Trabajo. Sección Internacional, Biblioteca y Publicaciones. *El Problema de la Habitación barata en Chile.* Estudio enviado a la Oficina Internacional del Trabajo. Santiago, 1926. 33 pp.

A study of the cheap housing problem in Chile, communicated to the International Labour Office.

DENMARK

Arbejdskommissionen af 1925. *I. Betaenkming vedrorende Maegling og Voldgift i Interessestridigheder.* Copenhagen, Schultz, 1926. 227 pp.

Report of the Labour Commission on Conciliation and Arbitration of Industrial Disputes in 1925.

Beretning den VIII. internationale Arbejdskonference, Genève 1926, fra de danske Delegerede. Reprinted from *Socialt Tidsskrift,* September 1926. Copenhagen, Harald Jensens Bogtrykkeri, 1926. 35 pp.

Beretning den IX. internationale Arbejdskonference, Genève 1926, fra de danske Delegerede. Reprinted from *Socialt Tidsskrift,* September 1926. Copenhagen, Harald Jensens Bogtrykkeri, 1926. 39 pp.

Reports by the Danish Delegates on the Eighth and Ninth Sessions of the International Labour Conference.

Ministeriet for Industri, Handel og Söfart. *Dansk Söulykke-Statistik 1924.* Copenhagen, Kongelige Sökort-Arkiv, 1926. 60 pp.

Statistics of accidents at sea in 1924, published by the Ministry of Industry, Commerce and Shipping. These statistics do not cover accidents to seamen.

EGYPT

Ministry of Finance. Government Publications Office. *Catalogue of Publications in Stores, April 1926.* Cairo, Government Press, 1926. 39 pp.

FINLAND

Maatalousministeriö. *Valtion asutustoiminta ja sitä koskeva lainsäädäntö. Suomessa XX Vuosisadan alussa.* By E. CAJANDER. (Maatalousministeriön julkaisu IV). Helsingfors, Valtioneuvoston kirjapaine, 1925. 115 pp.

The economic and social importance of the agrarian reform in Finland renders this official statement concerning the development of agrarian policy and legislation particularly interesting.

After a brief historical survey, the author analyses agrarian legislation at present in force. This legislation has been drafted with four main objects in view: (1) the liberation of lands held on lease by private individuals or by the state; (2) the establishment of new undertakings, with state financial assistance; (3) the elimination of speculation in land; (4) the organisation of agrarian policy. The practical results of legislation on these lines, passed in 1918-1920, are already considerable, and are set forth in chapter III. The last chapter studies the steps taken with a view to the improvement of the housing conditions of agricultural workers, a question which in Finland is of extreme importance.

FRANCE

Ministère des Travaux publics. Direction des Mines. Deuxième Bureau. *Statistique de l'industrie minérale et des appareils à vapeur en France et en Algérie pour l'année 1924.* Paris, Imprimerie nationale, 1926. XII + (87) + 197 pp. 45 fr.

GERMANY

Reichsministerium des Innern. *Deutsches Arzneibuch.* 6. Ausgabe 1926. Berlin, R. V. Decker's Verlag G. Schenk, 1926. XV + 854 pp.

Sixth edition of the German pharmacopoeia.

BAVARIA

Statistisches Amt der Stadt Nürnberg. *Nürnberger Wohnungszählung vom 16. April 1925. Hauptergebnisse.* Published as a supplement to the *Statistischer Monatsbericht* for August 1925. Nuremberg. 23 + IV pp.

Results of the census of dwellings taken at Nuremburg on 16 April 1925.

PRUSSIA

Statistisches Amt der Stadt Berlin. *Erster Verwaltungsbericht der neuen Stadt-*

gemeinde Berlin für die Zeit vom 1. Oktober 1920 bis 31. März 1924. Heft 1. *Einleitung und Allgemeine Verwaltung.* Berlin, Verlag für Politik und Wirtschaft. 175 pp.

The first report issued by the administration of the new Commune of Berlin, for the period 1 October 1920 to 31 March 1924. Vol. 1. Introduction and general administration.

GREAT BRITAIN

Board of Education. *Report of the Consultative Committee on the Education of the Adolescent.* London, H.M. Stationery Office, 1926. 339 pp. 2s.

Report of the Commission set up by the Board of Education in February 1924 for the purpose of studying the reorganisation of instruction intended for children, other than those in Secondary Schools, up to the age of 15, regard being had to the requirements of a good general education and the desirability of providing a reasonable variety of curricula, together with the necessity of preparing pupils for commercial, industrial or agricultural occupations later on. The Commission was further instructed to express an opinion as to the arrangements which should be made for testing the attainments of the pupils at the end of their course, and for facilitating in suitable cases the transfer of individual pupils to Secondary Schools at an age above the normal age of admission.

The report is spirited and well documented. It consists of eleven chapters, with appendices and an alphabetical index.

Department of Overseas Trade. *Report on the Economic and Commercial Conditions in the Dominion of New Zealand, during 1924, 1925, and first 7 months of 1926.* By L. B. Beale. London, H.M. Stationery Office, 1927. 65 pp. 2s.

—— *Report on the Economic and Financial Conditions in Brazil. Dated October 1926.* By Ernest Hambloch. London, H.M. Stationery Office, 1927. 55 pp. 1s. 6d.

—— *Report on the Economic and Financial Situation of Palestine.* By K. W. Stead. London, H.M. Stationery Office, 1927. 31 pp. 1s.

—— *Report on the Economic and Industrial Conditions in France, 1925-1926.* By J. R. Cahill. London, H.M. Stationery Office, 1927. 300 pp. 7s. 6d.

Home Office. *Report on the Fire and Explosion due to Ignition of Benzine Vapour in the Wax Proofing Department of the Albion Works of Messrs. J. Mandelberg and Co., Ltd., Salford, on September 28th, 1925.* By C. W. Price and H. W. Younger. Form 1829. London, H.M. Stationery Office, 1927. 10 pp. 9d.

—— *Workmen's Compensation. Statistics of Compensation and of Proceedings under The Workmen's Compensation Acts 1906 and 1923, and The Employers' Liability Act, 1880, during the year 1925.* London, H.M. Stationery Office, 1927. 33 pp. 9d.

House of Lords and House of Commons. Joint Select Committee on Consolidation Bills. *Consolidation Bills, 1926. Report by the Joint Select Committee of the House of Lords and the House of Commons on Consolidation Bills in the present Session, being a Report upon the Poor Law Bill [H. L.] together with the Proceedings of the Committee and Minutes of Evidence.* London, H.M. Stationery Office, 1927. x + 59 pp. 2s. 6d.

Medical Research Council. Industrial Fatigue Research Board. *The Relation of Atmospheric Conditions to the Working Capacity and the Accident Rate of Coal Miners.* By H. M. Vernon and T. Bedford. Report No. 39. London, H.M. Stationery Office, 1927. 34 pp. 1s. 3d.

Report of an enquiry into the relation of various atmospheric conditions (temperature, ventilation, etc.) to the working capacity of coal miners, in the course of which it has also been ascertained that accident frequency is influenced by these conditions. Thus, in a mine where ventilation was defective, the frequency of accidents among underground workers was found to be double the usual average. Moreover, the enquiry led to the conclusion that the more adverse the atmospheric conditions experienced underground, the greater the reduction

in the health of the miners. An appendix contains a summary of American research into the relation of working capacity to effective temperature.

Mines Department. *Report of H.M. Electrical Inspector of Mines for the year 1925.* London, H.M. Stationery Office, 1926. 38 pp., tables and chart. 6d.

—— **Safety in Mines Research Board.** *The Support of Underground Workings in the East Midland Coalfield (Yorkshire, Derbyshire excluding South Derbyshire, and Nottinghamshire).* Paper No. 30. London, H.M. Stationery Office, 1927. 48 pp. + 14 plates. 2d.

Ministry of Agriculture and Fisheries. *Land Settlement in England and Wales 1919 to 1924.* London, H.M. Stationery Office, 1925. 150 pp. 2s. 6d.

Reparation Commission. *The Experts' Plan for Reparation Payments. (Reports of the Committees of Experts. The London Agreements (August, 1924). The new Bank of the Reich. The new German Railway Company. The Industrial Charge. The External Loan.)* Official Documents, XIV. London, H.M. Stationery Office, 1927. VIII + 397 pp. 7s. 6d.

Unemployment Insurance Committee. *Reports of the Unemployment Insurance Committee. First Volume.* London, H.M. Stationery Office, 1927. 96 pp. 1s.

SCOTLAND

Scottish Board of Health. *Third Report of Proceedings of the Scottish Advisory Committee on the Welfare of the Blind to the Scottish Board of Health 1925-1926.* Edinburgh, H.M. Stationery Office, 1927. 27 pp. 6d.

HAITI

Annual Report of the Financial Adviser-General Receiver for the Fiscal Year October 1925-September 1926. New York. IX + 172 pp.

ICELAND

Hagstofu Islands. *Hagskyrslur Islands 47. Fiskiskyrslur og Hlunninda árid 1923.* Reykjavik, Prentsmidjunni Gutenberg, 1926. 55 pp.

Statistics of fishing, sealing, and fowling for the year 1923.

—— *Hagskyrslur Islands 48. Búnadarskyrslur árid 1924.* Reykjavik, Prentsmidjunni Gutenberg, 1926. 35 pp.

Statistics of agriculture for the year 1924.

INDIA

Agricultural Research Institutu, Pusa. *Scientific Reports, including the Reports of the Imperial Dairy Expert, Physiological Chemist, Government Sugarcane Expert, and Secretary, Sugar Bureau, 1925-1926.* Calcutta, Central Publication Branch, 1926. VI + 212 pp. Rs. 2-8 or 4s. 6d.

ITALY

Presidenza del Consiglio dei Ministri. Istituto centrale di Statistica. *Risultati sommari del censimento della popolazione eseguito il 1° Dicembre 1921.* Regno d'Italia, XIX. Rome, Stabilimento Poligrafico per l'Amministrazione dello Stato, 1927. 13 pp. 1 lira.

Results of the Italian census of population, taken on 1 December 1921.

JAPAN

Shakai Kyoku. Rodo Kankei Hoki. *Sangyo Fukuri Kyokai.*

Collection of labour laws, compiled by the Bureau of Social Affairs, Department of the Interior. Published by the Industrial Welfare Association.

NETHERLANDS

Departement van Landbouw, Nijverheid en Handel. Centraal Kantoor voor de

Statistiek in Nederlandsch-Indie. *Statistisch Jaarverzicht van Nederlandsch-Indie. Vervolg van: Jaarcijfers voor het Koninkrijk der Nederlanden (Kolonien) Jaargang 1925.* Weltvreden, Landsdrukkerij, 1926. XXVII + 405 pp.

Statistical abstract for the Dutch East Indies. Supplement to the Statistical Annual for the Netherlands (Colonies), for the year 1925.

NEW ZEALAND

Census and Statistics Office. *Statistical Report on Prices, Wages and Hours of Labour, Labour Department's Employment Bureaux, Industrial Accidents, Building Societies, Bankruptcy, Incomes and Income Tax, Land and Land Tax, Meterology for the year 1925. With a Statistical Summary of the Dominion from 1876 to 1925.* Wellington, W. A. G. Skinner, 1927. XL + 193 pp.

WESTERN SAMOA (MANDATED TERRITORY OF)

Department of Health. *Annual Report of the Department of Health for the year ended 31 March 1926.* Wellington, W. A. G. Skinner, 1926. 28 pp., illustr. and map. 1s. 3d.

Sixth Report of the Government of New Zealand on the Administration of the Mandated Territory of Western Samoa for the year ended 31 March 1926 Wellington, W. A. G. Skinner, 1926. 47 pp., illustr. and map. 2s. 9d.

NORWAY

De Internasjonale Arbeidskonferanser i Genève i Maj-Juni 1926. Innberetning fra de norske regjeringsdelegerte ekspedisjonschef Th. G. THORSEN og sjöfartsdirektör L. T. HANSEN. App. to *Sociale Meddelelser*, No. 7, 1926. Oslo, O. Christiansens Trykkeri, 1926. 52 pp.

Report by the Norwegian Government Delegates on the Eighth and Ninth Sessions of the International Labour Conference.

SWITZERLAND

Chancellerie fédérale. *Staatskalender der schweizerischen Eidgenossenschaft. Annuaire de la Confédération suisse. Annuario della Confederazione svizzera. 1926.* XV + 271 pp.

UNION OF SOUTH AFRICA

Department of Labour. Factories Division. *Annual Report of the Factories Division for Calendar Year 1925.* Advance Extract from the volume of Annual Departmental Reports for the period 1925-26. Supplement to *Social and Industrial Review.* Pretoria, Govt. Printing and Stationery Office, 1926. 36 pp.

Finance Accounts, Appropriation Accounts, Loan Funds and Miscellaneous Funds (Exclusive of Railways and Harbours). Financial Year, 1925-26. With the Report of the Controller and Auditor-General. Capetown, Cape Times, Govt. Printers, 1927. 449 pp. 15s.

Report of the Commissioner for Mental Hygiene. 1923-24. Capetown, Cape Times. Govt. Printers, 1926. 48 pp. 4s.

South African Railways and Harbours. Statement of Accounts. Financial Year 1925-26, with the Report of the Controller and Auditor-General. Pretoria, Govt. Printing and Stationery Office, 1927. XII + 204 pp. 10s.

UNITED STATES

Compensation for Employees in Certain Maritime Employments. Hearings before a Sub-Committee of the Committee on the Judiciary United States Senate. Sixty-ninth Congress. Washington, Govt. Printing Office, 1926. 104 pp.

Department of Labour. Bureau of Labour Statistics. *Collective Bargaining by Actors. A Study of Trade Unionism among Performers of the English-Speaking Legitimate Stage in America.* By Paul Fleming GEMMILL. Bulletin No. 402. Washington, Govt. Printing Office, 1926. III + 102 + VI pp.

—— —— *Growth of Legal Aid Work in the United States. A Study of our Administration of Justice primarily as it affects the Wage Earner and of the Agencies designed to improve his Position before the Law.* By Reginal Heber SMITH and John S. BROADWAY, with Preface by William Howard TAFT. No. 398. Washington, Govt. Printing Office, 1926. v + 145 + vii pp.

—— —— *Record of Industrial Accidents in the United States to 1925.* Bulletin No. 425. Washington, Govt. Printing Office, 1927. iv + 113 + v pp.

—— —— *Safety Code for Power Presses and Foot and Hand Presses.* Safety Code Series. Bulletin No. 430. Washington, Govt. Printing Office, 1926. 64 pp.

—— **Women's Bureau.** *Lost Time and Labour Turnover in Cotton Mills. A Study of Cause and Extent.* Bulletin No. 52. Washington, Govt. Printing Office, 1926. vii + 203 pp.

—— —— *The Status of Women in the Government Service in 1925.* By Bertha A. NIENBURG. Bulletin No. 53. Washington, Govt. Printing Office, 1926. vii + 103 pp.

—— —— *Women in Mississippi Industries. A Study of Hours, Wages, and Working Conditions.* Bulletin No. 55. Washington, Govt. Printing Office, 1926. vi + 89 pp.

Federal Board for Vocational Education. *Tenth Annual Report to Congress' 1926.* Washington, Govt. Printing Office, 1926. 171 pp.

A report in which the Federal Board for Vocational Education reviews the recent progress made, as a result of the Smith-Hughes Act, which laid down a programme of co-operation as between the Federal Government and the States of the Union with the object of developing vocational instruction in agriculture, commerce, home economics and industry.

As in preceding years, the report is divided into three main sections. Part I contains the general report of the work of the Board, and Part II the special reports of the different services; Part III gives statistical information relating to the functioning of vocational training schools of various grades and the financial resources placed at their disposal.

Fourteenth Annual Report of the Secretary of Labour for the Fiscal Year ended 30 June 1926. Washington, Govt. Printing Office, 1926. v + 149 pp.

NEW YORK

Board of Housing. *Preliminary Report of the State Board of Housing to Governor Alfred E. Smith. 15 December 1926.* Albany, 1926. 31 pp.

Department of Labour. *Accidents compensated in year ended 30 June 1925 A. Cost of Compensation.* Special Bulletin No. 146, July 1926.

NORTH DAKOTA

Workmen's Compensation Bureau. Minimum Wage Department. *Fourth Biennial Report of the Minimum Wage Department of the Workmen's Compensation Bureau, North Dakota, to the Governor of North Dakota. For the year ending 30 June 1926.* 36 pp.

PENNSYLVANIA

Department of Labour and Industry. *Safe Practices Recommendations.* 1926 Edition.

NON-OFFICIAL PUBLICATIONS

Adami, Col. Vittorio. *National Frontiers in Relation to International Law.* Translated by Lt.-Col. T. T. BEHRENS. With an Appendix on Practical Considerations

when defining Frontiers by Watersheds. London, Humphrey Milford, 1927. VIII + 127 + XI pp.

Audrige. *Dictionnaire des Monnaies. Billets de Banque, Monnaies d'or, d'argent, de nickel et de bronze.* Issued by the Banque Vasseus. Paris, Sitri Bloch et Cie., 1926. 205 pp., 125 photographic illustrations.

Berol-Konorah, Max. *25 Jahre. I.A.L. Ihr Werden Wachsen und Wirken, 1901-1926.* Berlin, Das Programm, 1926. 112 pp.

A little book issued by the Loge internationale des artistes forains, in which the author gives the history of the international organisation of travelling showmen during the last twenty-five years.

Bibl, F. *Ceskoslovenksa republika v cislech.* Prague, Vesmir, 1926.

Population statistics compiled by the Secretary of the Statistical Office of Czechoslovakia. Chapters are included which cover occupation and emigration statistics respectively.

Bily, Josef. *Ukoly Nasich Funkcionaru.* Prague, Ceskoslovenská Obchodnická Beseda, 1926. 67 pp.

The author, who is General Secretary of the Czechoslovak Federation of Commercial Employees, deals here with the duties of trade union leaders, more especially those of the organisation which he represents.

Boerenbond belge ou Ligue des Paysans. *Rapport par le Chanoine Luyigaerens. Exercice 1925.* Louvain, Imp. J. Wouters-Ickx. 142 pp.

Böhm, Dr. Max and Söcke, Dr. E. *Die orthopädische Versorgung.* Zweiter Teil: *Der Kunstarm. Krankenfahrzeuge.* Arbeit und Gesundheit. Schriftenreihe zum *Reichsarbeitsblatt.* Herausgegeben von Professor D. MARTINECK. Heft 3. Berlin, Verlag des Reichsarbeitesblattes, Reimar Hobbing, 1926. 61 pp., 163 illustrations.

Study of artificial arms and invalid carriages.

Busch, Dr. *Cechosl. Bergwerks-Handbuch.* Published by the author. Teplitz-Schönau, 1927. 250 pp.

A work of reference relating to the Czechoslovakian Mining Industry. It contains chapters dealing with industrial subjects such as mining undertakings, special schools, workers' insurance, trade unions or associations, arbitration tribunals, etc.

Camera di Commercio e Industria di Roma. Ufficio Statistica. *Prezzi dei principali prodotti agricoli della circoscrizione nel periodo 1910-1926. Dati sulla produzione numeri indici — rappresentazioni grafiche.* Rome, Tipografia della Camera dei Deputati, Carlo Colombo.

Report of the Chamber of Commerce and Industry, Rome, on prices of the principal agricultural products of the Rome district from 1910 to 1926.

Ceskoslovenska Akademie Zemedelstvi. Zemedelstvi v Polsku. *Prednasky ze slavnostni schuze Ceskoslovenske Akademie zemedelske venované polskému zemedelstvi v Praze dne 11. kvetna 1926.* Prague, Ceskoslovenska Akademie zemedelstvi.

Papers read by specialists in Polish agricultural questions on 11 May 1925 before the Czechoslovakian Academy of Agriculture, on the economic position of Polish agriculture, elementary, secondary, and continuation instruction in agricultural subjects, and the organisation of agricultural production and research in Poland.

Chastanet, J. L. *La dictature de l'argent.* Paris, Ernest Flammarion. 245 pp.

Civita, Domenico. *La Houille Blanche en Italie (1926).* Associazione Esercenti Imprese Elettriche. Rome, "L'Universale" Tipografia Poliglotta, 1926. 59 pp.

Clark, Horace F., and Chase, Frank A. *Elements of the Modern Building and Loan Associations.* New York, MacMillan Company, 1925. XVIII + 540 pp.

A valuable book giving a bird's-eye view of the question of building and loan

societies, more especially from the American standpoint. It makes its appeal to the economist and sociologist as well as to all who are interested in the practical organisation of societies of this kind.

Economists will find in it an amply documented explanation of the working of these institutions in the United States, with an analysis of the principal account and other forms in actual use. Sociologists will meet with a profound and reasoned study of various problems which arise in actual practice, and of the solutions which have been found for them, especially as regards the establishment of a society, the practical organisation of it, accounting methods, raising and management of capital, and legislation in force.

The work is completed by a glossary and an index.

Confederacion Argentina del Comercio, de la Industria, y de la Produccion. *Memoria del Consejo Directivo. Correspondiente al Decimo Ejercicio terminado el 30 de Setiembre de 1926.* Estudio de Problemas Nacionales. No. 26. Buenos Aires, A. Mazzuco. 15 pp.

Report of the Administrative Council of the Confederation of Commerce, Industry and Production, for the period ending 30 September 1926.

Consorzio Lombardo fra Industriali Meccanici e Metallurgici. *Disciplina giuridica dei rapporti collettivi del lavoro. Raccolta coordinata delle disposizioni legislative e dei precedenti con indice alfabetico-analitico per materia.* 2° edizione ampliata e riveduta. Pubblicazione durata dalla "Giurisprudenzia del Lavoro". LII + 277 pp. 12 lire.

Collection of texts of Italian legislation concerning collective relations in connection with employment, and related documents. New and revised edition.

Cooperative Operaie di Trieste, Istria e Friuli. *Ventidue Anni di Attività. 1903-1925.* Trieste, Tipografia Moderna M. Susmel Co., 1926.

Report upon the functioning of workers' co-operative societies in Trieste, Istria and Friuli, during the period 1903 to 1925.

Delos, A. *La Question du bail à ferme en Belgique.* Gembloux, J. Duculot. 1926. 80 pp.

The question of farm leases is one of particular interest, seeing that it has a direct bearing upon the increase of agricultural productivity. The author considers that an improved farm lease would constitute a guarantee of intensified production, more especially by elimination of the "period of exhaustion" at the end of certain leases, during which the lessee restricts his efforts with consequent diminution of production. This is a matter of great importance in Belgium, where large numbers of agriculturalists rent their farms. The author studies farming conditions, the essential clauses of the farm lease, provisions ordinarily included and special provisions relating to the principal agricultural regions, the "sliding-scale" lease, and agricultural tribunals.

The text of a Bill to amend certain clauses of the Civil Code relating to farm leases, introduced by the Minister of Agriculture, is reproduced in an appendix.

Denker, Dr. Ing. *Der Verkehr mit Sprengstoffen. Die reichs- und landesrechtlichen Vorschriften nach dem Stande vom Januar 1926.* Berlin, Carl Heymanns Verlag, 1926. 105 + 8 pp.

Regulations for the transport of explosives in Germany, as at 1 January 1926.

Deutscher Bekleidungs-Arbeiter-Verband. *Umfang der Tarifverträge sowie geführte Lohnbewegungen im Jahre 1925.* Berlin, Selbstverlag des Verbandes, 1926. 76 pp.

The present report on the provisions of collective agreements in force during 1925 in various branches of the German clothing industry lays particular stress on the wage-increases which have resulted therefrom.

Dupont, Eug. *La Laine de France. Vade-Mecum du Moutonnier et du Lainier.* 1926. 331 pp.

Ecole internationale de Genève. *Premier rapport annuel, année scolaire 1925-1926.* Genève, Imp. H. Jarrys, 1926. 20 pp.

Engelhardt, Dr. Viktor. *Die Bildungsinteressen in den einzelnen Berufen. Eine auf Grund des Materials der Volkshochschule Gross-Berlin durchgeführte statistische Untersuchung.* Frankfort-on-the-Main, Neuer Frankfurt-Verlag, 1926. 41 pp.

The author reviews the results of an enquiry into the cultural aspirations of workers in various occupations.

Englis, Karel. *Otazky a Nazory.* Prague, F. Borovy, 1926. 376 pp.

The author, who is Czechoslovak Minister of Finance and a Professor of the University of Brünn, has collected in this volume one hundred articles published by him during the period 1919 to 1925 on various economic, financial, and social questions.

Ev. Deutsche Bahnhofsmission (E.V.) *Zum Schutze der reisenden weiblichen Jugend.* 33. Rundschreiben. Berlin-Dahlem, 1926. 39 pp.

Circular No. 33, issued by the German Evangelical Railway Mission, regarding the protection of young girls while travelling.

Gignoux, C. J. *Bourges pendant la Guerre.* Economic and Social History of the World War (French Series). Publications of the Carnegie Endowment for International Peace. Paris, Presses universitaires de France; New Haven, U.S.A., Yale University Press. 64 pp.

G.I.P. Railway Workmen's Union. *Seventh Annual Report for 1925-26.* Bombay, Aravind Printing Press, 1926. 21 pp.

Hahn, Albert. *Geld und Kredit.* Tübingen, J. C. B. Mohr, 1924. 146 pp.

Studies dealing with the period of currency inflation in Germany. The author examines the various causes of inflation, and the theories upon which the explanation of this phenomenon in Germany is based. One of the studies is devoted to consideration of the difference between English and German banking methods.

Handbuch des Arbeiterschutzes und der Betriebssicherheit, in Beiträgen von Mitarbeiter aus den Kreisen der Reichs- und Landesministerien, Gewerbeaufsichts-, Bergaufsichts-, Gewerbemedizinalbehörden, Berufsgenossenschaften und Dampfkesselüberwachungsvereine, Hochschulen, sowie von sonstigen besonders sachverständigen Mitarbeitern. Edited by Dr. Fr. Syrup. Vol. I. Berlin, Reimar Hobbing, 1927. 714 pp.

A "handbook of workers' protection and industrial safety", prepared in collaboration by various German ministries, both Federal and State, factory, mining, and public health inspectorates, accident associations, boiler inspection societies and other experts. The first volume, just published, is a work without precedent in either German or international literature. The editor has succeeded in compiling the experience not only of all the collaborators, but, through them, that of all the numerous administrations and organisations which they represent.

The principal object of the book is to give fresh impetus to the idea of workers' protection and industrial security, and thus to facilitate adequate realisation of them. Accordingly, although the book is primarily addressed to heads of undertakings, employers of labour, and their agents, it will nevertheless be favourably received by the wage-earners' representatives also. Workers' organisations will find in it a mine of well-documented information for the edification of their members. The work will also be of great use to educational institutions interested in these questions, e.g. technical high schools, schools of mining, and those offering courses of instruction for engineers and works councillors.

Volume I is concerned with the protection of workers and industrial safety in general. The first part is devoted to a study of the meaning of workers' protection and the legislative bases upon which it rests; it is shown in what shape and by what means the State watches over the execution of protective measures, and also undertakes the inspection of accident insurance institutions. A special chapter is set aside for consideration of the international protection of workers. Part II deals in detail with factory buildings, workshops, etc., including lighting, heating,

ventilation and air purification. A special part is devoted to the study of cloak-rooms, washing, bathing and other sanitary installations, together with infirmaries, hospitals, and workers' dwellings in connection with the undertaking. The following part is entitled " Machinery and factory plant in general " ; it is concerned with motors, steam boilers, electrical apparatus, transmission gear, weight-lifting machinery, hand and power-driven tools, storage of combustible materials and explosives, ladders, and scaffolding. The fifth part is called " Management of the undertaking and attitude of the workers employed in it, in relation to the general physiology and psychology of labour " ; it is composed of a series of chapters relating to questions which nowadays excite the liveliest interest. The final part is concerned with the protection of those living in the immediate neighbourhood of an industrial undertaking against risks emanating from it.

Handwerkskammer zu Altona. *Jahresbericht für das Kalenderjahr 1926.* Altona-Elbe, H. W. Köbner. 64 pp.

Annual Report of the Altona Chamber of Crafts for the year 1926.

Herrick, Cheesman A. *White Servitude in Pennsylvania. Indentured and Redemption Labour in Colony and Commonwealth.* Philadelphia, John Joseph McVey, 1926. IX + 330 pp.

Dr. Herrick has written a careful and well documented book on the supply of labour in Pennsylvania during its development as a colony and in its early years as a commonwealth. There were three forms of labour : free labour, indentured or redemption labour, and slave labour. It is with the second group that this book is concerned and the author explains in detail how the demand for such labour arose, the conditions of supply, the system in operation in Pennsylvania, and the results obtained there.

The indentured " servants " came mainly from Great Britain and Germany ; many of them were artisans of considerable efficiency, and even persons of education such as school masters. It is interesting to note that the indenture system was continued for a long time, and did not entirely disappear until near the close of the first third of the nineteenth century.

After his exhaustive study of the problem, Dr. Herrick comes to the conclusion that on the one hand much that is revolting and objectionable is brought to light, but that on the other hand the good effects (the opportunities it gave to pioneers to build both for themselves and for the commonwealth) are not to be dismissed as of slight consequence. He thinks that " the redemption emigrants as a class and in the long run probably enjoyed a larger measure of comfort and happiness in the new world than would have been theirs in the old. " At the same time the system had a determining effect on the development of Pennsylvania ; her opposition to slavery, for instance, was due in no small measure to the substitute form of servile labour which was available there.

Herzl, Théodore. *L'Etat Juif. Essai d'une solution de la question juive.* Introduction by Hagani Baruch. Paris, Librairie Lipschutz, 1926. 238 pp.

Hirsch, Max. *Die Gefahren der Frauenwerbsarbeit für Schwangerschaft, Geburt, Wochenbett und Kindesaufsucht mit besonderer Berücksichtigung der Textilindustrie.* Leipzig, Verlag von Curt Kabitzsch, 1925. 32 + VIII pp., illustr.

The author discusses difficulties connected with the employment of women, arising from pregnancy, child-birth, etc., with special reference to the textile industry.

Hische, W. *Das Eignungsprinzip, Richtlinien psychologischmenschenwirtschaftlicher Berufsberatung.* Deutsche Psychologie, Arbeitenreihe. Band IV, Heft 4. Halle-on-the-Saale, Carl Marhold Verlagsbuchhandlung, 1926. 1.50 marks. 44 pp.

The author criticises the psycho-pedagogical methods employed by vocational counsellors up to the present, and proposes new criteria for the purpose. In particular, he recommends the use of the questionnaire and of the individual card for recording psychological observations.

Host, Sigurd. *The Problem of History Teaching. A Lecture delivered at the Fourth International Congress on Moral Education in Rome, 16-20 April 1926.* Nor-

wegian Committee of Moral Education. Oslo, Emil Moestue A/S Boktrykkeri, 1926. 18 pp.

Hug, Dr. Walther. *Grundfragen des Arbeitsrechts.* Coire, A. Bock, 1926. 72 pp.

A report, the essential parts of which were submitted to the Social-Evangelical Congress held at Zurich in April 1925. The author explains the principles upon which, in his opinion, labour legislation should be based. He points out that, to be operative, labour legislation must be in agreement with the general sentiment of the people ; and that the awakening of a sentiment of this nature imposes itself as the task of Christianity conscious of its social mission.

Huitième Congrès national de l'Agriculture française. Avignon, 1926. Compte-rendu des Travaux. Paris, Confédération nationale des Associations agricoles, 1926. 378 pp. 15 frs.

The Eighth National Congress of French Agriculture, held in 1926, was not less interesting than its predecessors. Special mention may be made of papers read as follows : by Mr. Gavoty, on the organisation of the sale of agricultural products by associations ; by Mr. Tacussel, on the sale of dessert grapes ; by Mr. Guillebert des Essars, on the collective sale of crops by the Agricultural Co-operative Section of the Industrial Organisation of Regional Agriculture ; by Mr. Moulinot, on protection of the producer in the wholesale and other markets, and the situation in which producers have been placed in provincial markets ; by Mr. J. Cassagnac, on consignment by post ; and by Messrs. Aubergé and Hallé, on the question of wheat export.

The Resolutions of the Congress are reproduced in full.

Hungary before and after the War, in economic-statistical Maps. Budapest, The Institute of Political Sciences of the Hungarian Statistical Society, 1926. 159 pp.

Jedlicka, Joseph. *Nekolik poznamek K. Navrhu Zákona O stredni skole.* Masarykova Akademie Práce. Odbor nàrodohospodarsky a socialni, Cislo 2. Prague, Masarykova Akademie Práce, 1925. 35 pp.

The author, who is a professor at the school of higher technical studies at Prague, examines the proposal for the reform of secondary education, drafted by the Committee instructed to deal with the matter by the Ministry of Public Instruction.

Keller, Adolf. *Die soziale Erneuerung der Menschheit durch das Christentum.* Reprinted from *Die Eiche*, 14. Jahrgang, 1926, No. 3. 20 pp.

The author shows how the social preoccupations with which various religious organisations have been specially inspired of late, and which may be called " the spirit of Stockholm ", form a link between the different groups which are all taking part in the movement for the social betterment of workers.

Latvijas Piwnsaimniecibas Centralas Savienibas. *Darbitas Parskats par 1925, gadu.* Riga, 1926. 41 pp.

Annual Report for 1925 of the Union of Latvian Co-operative Dairy Societies.

Leland, Waldo G., and Mereness, Newton D. *Introduction to the American Official Sources for the Economic and Social History of the World War.* Economic and Social History of the World War, American Series. Publications of the Carnegie Endowment for International Peace, Division of Economics and History. London, Humphrey Milford ; New Haven, Yale University Press, 1926. XLVII + 532 pp.

Lincoln, Edmond E. *Testing Before Investing.* Chicago, A. W. Shaw Company, 1926. XII + 96 pp.

Lövinson, Dr. Käthe. *Frauenarbeit in Bankbetrieben. Ein Beitrag zur Wirtschaftsgeschichte unserer Zeit.* Berlin, Struppe und Winckler, 1926. 61 pp.

A survey of the employment of women in banks.

Manes, Alfred. *Sozialversicherung.* Sixth (revised) edition. Collection Goschen No. 267. Berlin and Leipzig, Walter de Gruyter, 1926. 128 pp.

A sixth edition of Professor Manes' textbook. It deals systematically with the organisation and operation of the four main branches which form the foundation of social insurance in Germany, i.e. sickness insurance, accident insurance, and old-age and invalidity insurance for workers; and employees' insurance. The author has kept strictly to the essentials of his subject, thereby making it possible for the reader to get a general view of the principles upon which the German social insurance system is based, and of the results which have been arrived at.

Marrone, E. *Il credito agrario. Legislazione, Tecnica, Riforme.* Catania, Battiato, 1926. 222 pp. 12 lire.

A study of the nature and operation of agricultural credit, and of the reforms which are called for with a view to the expansion and better utilisation of the advantages offered by it. Chapter VII, which is of particular interest, is devoted to a comparative examination of agricultural credit in Italy and other countries.

A bibliography and an analytical index are included.

Masson, P. *Marseille pendant la Guerre.* Economic and Social History of the World War (French Series). Publications of the Carnegie Endowment for International Peace. Paris, Presses universitaires de France; New Haven, U.S.A., Yale University Press. 77 pp.

Meldau, Dr. Robert. *Der Industriestaub. Wesen und Bekämpfung.* Berlin, V.D.I. - Verlag, 1926. VI + 301 pp., 158 illustrations, 14 tables.

A study of measures to deal with the evil of industrial dusts.

National Federation of Iron and Steel Manufacturers. *Statistics of the Iron and Steel Industries (1925).* London, National Federation of Iron and Steel Manufacturers. VIII + 111 pp.

National Industrial Conference Board. *Industrial-Economic Conditions in the United States. January 1927.* Bulletin No. 17. New York, 1927. 43 pp.

Newspaper Press Directory. Eighty-Second Annual Issue. London, C. Mitchell, 1927. 679 pp. 5s.

Nicolas, Raoul. *Répertoire chronologique et alphabétique des lois, décrets, arrêtés ministériels promulgués en Indochine du 1er janvier 1918 au 1er janvier 1926.* Hanoi, Imprimerie d'Extrême-Orient, 1926. 326 pp.

Chronological and alphabetical index of Acts, Decrees, and Ministerial Regulations promulgated in Indo-China from 1 January 1918 to 1 January 1926.

Nihon Kaiin Ekisaikai. *Nihon Kaiin Ekisaikai Enkaku Teiyo.* Book I. Tokio, 1926.

—— *Nihon Kaiin Ekisaikai Yoran.* Tokio, 1926.

—— *Taisho Jiuyo Nendo Jigyo Hokoku.* Tokio, 1926.

Three studies published by the Japanese Seamen's Union, on the history of this association from 1880 to 1920, its organisation, and its work in 1925.

Pantano, Edoardo. *L'Istituto Internazionale d'Agricoltura. La sua vita ed i suoi problemi.* Nuova Antologia 1° Maggio 1924. Rome, Direzione della Nuova Antologia, 1924. 30 pp.

A general study of the working of and problems dealt with by the International Institute of Agriculture.

Peschaud, Marcel. *Politique et Fonctionnement des Transports par Chemin de Fer pendant la Guerre.* Economic and Social History of the World War (French Series). Publications of the Carnegie Endowment for International Peace. Paris, Presses universitaires de France; New Haven, U.S.A., Yale University Press. 305 pp.

Polak, Anna. *De Arbeidsduur van Verkoopsters te 's-Gravenhage.* La durée du travail des vendeuses dans les magasins de La Haye. The Hague, Het Nationaal Bureau voor Vrouwenarbeid. 10 pp.

Preger, Ernst and Lehmann, Wilh. *Grundzüge der Unfallverhütungstechnik und der Gewerbehygiene in Maschinenfabriken.* Zweite Auflage, neu bearbeitet von Paul Kaempf und Wilh Lehmann, mit 147 Abbildungen im Text. Leipzig, Max Jänecke, Verlagsbuchhandlung, 1926. 155 pp.

Fundamental principles of safety and hygiene in mechanical construction.

Protokoll vom 1. Kongress der Textilarbeiterinnen Deutschlands. Abgehalten Montag, den 11., und Dienstag, den 12. Oktober 1926 in Gera Etablissement "Wintergarten" (Reichsstrasse). Berlin, "Textil-Praxis" Verlagsgesellschaft. 143 pp.

Record of proceedings of the first Congress of German Women Textile Workers, held on 11 and 12 October 1926.

Pro Juventute. *La Fondation suisse Pro Juventute.* Zurich, Secretariat général de Pro Juventute. 32 pp.

—— *Rapport annuel de la Fondation Pro Juventute pour l'exercice annuel du 1er juillet 1925 au 30 juin 1926.* Zurich, Secrétariat général de Pro Juventute. 30 pp.

A history and annual report for the year 1 July 1925 to 30 June 1926 of the Swiss Child Welfare Society.

Reichesberg, Dr. N. *Auf dem Wege zur Wirtschaftsdemokratie* (Anlässlich der Prager Internationalen Kongresses für Sozialpolitik). Berne, Buchdruckerei Steiger, 1925. 45 pp.

A short historical survey of the various stages on the way to industrial democracy, written on the occasion of the International Congress on Social Policy, held at Prague in 1925.

Rohde, Wilhelm. *Unfallverhütung. Ratschläge zur Unfallverhütung in gewerblichen Betrieben.* Dresden, Verlagsanstalt Erich Deleiter. 64 pp.

Recommendations for the prevention of industrial accidents.

Ross, Edward Alsworth. *Das Buch der Gesellschaft. Grundlagen der Soziologie und Sozialreform.* Translated from the English by Dr. Rose Hilferding. Preface by Leopold von Wiese. Bibliothek der Soziologie und Politik. Zweiter Band. Karlsruhe, G. Braun, 1926. xiii + 596 pp. 20 marks.

The author, a professor at Madison University, Wisconsin, U.S.A., approaches the social problems of the day with a healthy realism. The facts, methods, phenomena, and rules which together constitute the framework within which each individual existence functions, are studied from the viewpoint of universality. The book contains five principal parts, dealing in turn with questions of population, social forces, social relations, the social structure and sociological principles. The pragmatism of the writer is clearly demonstrated throughout the work, and especially so in the conclusion, where the principle of equilibrium is laid down as follows: each element of the social structure must play its part in the life of the community according to the measure of intelligence and social sense possessed by it; but no one of these elements must be allowed to predominate.

Sellier, Henri, Bruggeman, A., and Poète, Marcel. *Paris pendant la Guerre.* Economic and Social History of the World War (French Series). Publications of the Carnegie Endowment for International Peace. Paris, Presses Universitaires de France; New Haven, U.S.A., Yale University Press. 105 pp.

Société belge d'études et d'expansion. *Rapport résumé 1925. 24ème exercice social.* Préface de M. Raymond Poincaré, et avant-propos de M. Henri Jaspar. Liège, 1926. 43 pp.

Société Industrielle de Mulhouse. *Le Centenaire de la Société Industrielle de Mulhouse 1826-1926.* Tome I. La Société Industrielle, son Activité et ses Créa-

tions de 1826-1926. Tome II. L'industrie et le commerce à Mulhouse et dans le Haut-Rhin de 1900-1925. Mulhouse, 1926. 279 pp. and 252 pp.

A history of the Industrial Association of Mulhouse, issued on the occasion of its centenary. Vol. I deals with the working of the Association and Vol. II gives a description of industry and commerce in Mulhouse and the Haut-Rhin from 1900 to 1925.

Soziales Landesmuseum in München (Bayerisches Arbeiter-Museum). *25 Jahre 1900-1925.* Munich, H. Kutzner, 1926. 31 pp.

A booklet describing the work of the Social Museum in Munich during 1925.

Stern, Josef Luitpold. *Klassenkampf und Massenschulung.* Prague, 1925. 32 pp.

Takano, Iwasaburo. *Honpo Zinko no Genzai oyobi Shorai.* Tokio, Dozin Sha, 1925.

Present and future expansion of Japanese population.

Tetsudo Daijin Kambo Gengyo Chosa Ka. *Kokuyu Tetsudo Gengyo Jinkai Jigo Gaiyo.* Tokio, 1926.

Report on the system of staff representation on Japanese State Railways, issued by the Section for the Investigation of Working Conditions attached to the Department of Railways.

With a view to eliminating, so far as possible, the causes of conflict between the directorate and staffs of railways under its control, the Japanese Government established in May 1920 a system of staff representation covering the whole of the workers and employees in the service, with the exception of officials properly so called. A committee, composed of representatives elected by the staff, has been set up in each department, section, or workshop ; these committees, 137 in number, are empanelled for the purpose of " setting out their point of view upon all matters concerning the interests and well-being of the staff, and of replying to requests which may be made by the directorate for information thereon ". Their principal duty is to make suggestions which the Chief of the Department of Railways and responsible chiefs of the Japanese State Railways are free to accept or reject as they see fit.

Although, according to the present report, the system still lacks flexibility, it would nevertheless appear to have had appreciable results. Thanks to the efforts of the representative committees, the minimum wages of the lowest paid groups of workers as well as wage supplements paid have been increased ; and improvements have been effected in regard to the taking of meals, rest periods, etc.

Trades Union Congress General Council. *Mining Dispute National Strike. Report of the General Council to the Conference of Executives of Affiliated Unions, 25 June 1926. Also Supplementary Report of the General Council to the Conference of Executives of Affiliated Unions, 20 January 1927.* London, 1927. 31 pp., appendix.

Trades Union Congress and Labour Party. *Labour and the Empire. Africa.* Preface by the Rt. Hon. J. H. Thomas, M.P. London. 27 pp. 6d.

This important pamphlet lays down the British Labour Party's official policy with regard to the native races of Africa and the territories inhabited by them for which the British Government is responsible. Extracts from the pamphlet were published in *Industrial and Labour Information* for 24 January 1927.

Verband der Bergarbeiter Deutschlands. *Protokoll der 25. Generalversammlung des Verbandes der Bergarbeiter Deutschlands. Abgehalten zu Saarbrücken vom 4. Juli bis 8. Juli 1926.* 1926. 320 pp.

Record of proceedings of the Twenty-fifth General Assembly of the Federation of German Miners, held at Saarbrücken, 4-8 July 1926.

Verband der Maler, Lackierer, Anstreicher, Tüncher und Weissbinder Deutschlands. *Erhebungen über die Lehrlingsverhältnisse im Malergewerbe, angenommen im April 1926, herausgegeben vom Verbandsvorstand.* Hamburg, Verlag von O. Streine, 1926. 32 pp.

The result of an enquiry into apprenticeship in the painting industry, undertaken by the decorative painters' union. Such questions as the number of undertakings and apprentices, period of apprenticeship, remuneration of apprentices, method and scope of vocational training, position of apprentices whose remuneration includes board and lodging, the attitude adopted by trade unions in relation to apprenticeship, and the length of the working day are all covered by the enquiry.

Verband deutscher Elektrotechniker E. V. 1. *Errichtungs- und Betriebsvorschriften.* 2. *Vorschriften für Schlagwetter-Schutzvorrichtungen.* Berlin, Verband deutscher Elektrotechniker, August 1926. 70 pp.

German regulations relating to electrical installations and protection against damage by lightning.

Wallichs, A. *Die Fliessarbeit und ihre Nutzbarmachung für die deutsche Wirtschaft.* Stuttgart, Walter Hädecke, 1927. 63 pp., 13 illustr.

The author gives a brief description of work on travelling platforms or benches forming an endless band, etc. (*Fliessarbeit*). His object is to demonstrate how this method can be suitably adapted to German industry.

Week, Guillaume de. *Histoire du Mouvement des Etudiants Catholiques. Vers la fondation d'une Confédération internationale (1887-1925).* Fribourg, Fragnière Frères, 1926. 79 pp.

The first international organisation of Catholic students, founded by Mr. de Montenach in 1890, later became an international secretariat called "Pax Romana". This has recently been followed by the establishment of the Confederatio Studentium Universi Orbis Terrarum Catholica, the headquarters of which are at Fribourg (Switzerland).

Weingerl, Alois. *Die Bezüge und die Abzüge der Bediensteten der österreichischen Bundesbahnen.* Vienna, Bucherverlag Linz, 1925. XII + 579 + VIII pp.

A survey of Austrian federal railway workers' wages, and of deductions therefrom.

Willeke, Eduard. *Das deutsche Arbeitsnachweiswesen. Eine synthetische Darstellung des Arbeitsnachweisgesetzes in vier Tafeln. Der Arbeitsmarkt.* Schriftenreihe des Seminars für Arbeitsvermittlung und Berufsberatung an der Universität Münster i. W. Herausgegeben von Heinrich Weber und Bernhard Ordemann. Vol. 1. Berlin, Grune-Verlag, 1926. 128 pp., 4 illus.

A work forming the commencement of a series of studies devoted to labour market problems, undertaken by the department for the study of vocational guidance and placing, of the Münster (Westphalia) University. The author examines the structural organisation and *modus operandi* of the public system of placing, set up in Germany by the Act of 22 July 1922.

Yanouloff, Ilia. *Moralna Statistika.* Sofia, 1927. 170 pp. 50 leva.

In the first part of his work on "Morality Statistics" the author, who is a *Privat dozent* at Sofia University, studies the question of suicide — its proportions, the causes which give rise to it, and remedies for it — both in Bulgaria and abroad. The subject is dealt with in all its aspects, viz., suicide resultant upon family troubles, religious difficulties, love affairs, politics, sickness, alcoholism, etc. The conclusion is reached that, in the majority of cases, especially among the working classes, the causes of suicide whether hidden or obvious may be imputed more or less definitely to what the author calls "anti-social phenomena", e.g. poverty, industrial diseases, alcoholism, under-feeding, unemployment, inadequacy of social welfare provisions, and so forth. Sooner or later, all or any of these will break down not only physical resistance but also moral resistance, frequently with the result that the individual's mentality is undermined, thus driving him to suicide.

The author is of opinion that all suicides originating in anti-social phenomena are preventible by the introduction of a clear-sighted and prophylactic social policy, the principles of which, laid down in the Preamble to Part XIII of the Peace Treaty, are broadened and enriched by the activities of the International Labour Organisation.

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The Place of Sickness Insurance in the National Health System

by

Professor G. LORIGA

Chief Medical Inspector of Labour, Rome

In accordance with the request in the Resolution on general problems of social insurance adopted by the Seventh Session of the International Labour Conference in 1925, the Governing Body of the International Labour Office has placed the question of sickness insurance on the agenda of the Tenth Session (1927), and proposes to submit the question of invalidity, old-age, and widows' insurance to an early Session of the Conference.

On this occasion it has seemed desirable to publish in the Review *the following article by Professor G. Loriga, a well-known authority on the subject, on the place of sickness insurance in the national health system — a most interesting question, which cannot fail to attract the attention of the Conference.*

THE International Labour Conference has already several times considered questions of social insurance, especially insurance against accidents. But, as noted in one of the publications of the Office[1], the Draft Conventions, Recommendations and Resolutions adopted before 1925 " approached insurance only as part of some more general problem, or dealt only with some secondary aspect of compensation for industrial accidents. "

In 1925, on the other hand, the Conference, in a new discussoni on accident insurance, considered mainly the elements essentially involved in a system of workmen's compensation for accidents, from the field of application (or occupational categories to be admitted to the benefits of the system or excluded from it), and the benefits (minimum scale of compensation, form of payment, supplementary compensation, benefits in kind), to the methods

[1] *The International Labour Organisation and Social Insurance*, p. 9, Geneva, 1925.

of controlling the nature and the degree of incapacity, methods of review of compensation granted, and means of ensuring payment of compensation and deciding disputes.

In the same Session the Conference adopted the principle that occupational diseases should be treated on the same footing as industrial accidents; while the Washington Session (1919) had adopted a Convention dealing with the protection of women workers before and after childbirth.

Since a common feature of all these problems is that they are concerned with obviating the consequences of happenings in the life of the worker which may cause him not only economic but also physical injury, it would seem at first sight that sickness insurance should not give rise to discussions of principle or of tendencies. Differences of opinion might be expected only over secondary points, such as the regulations contained in all insurance laws for the application of the law, which are practically the same as those discussed in connection with accident insurance, with the possible addition of some other questions relating to the risks to be covered and the guarantees to be demanded (technical organisation of insurance institutions, amount and distribution of contributions, methods of management, etc.).

In the present writer's opinion, on the contrary, while sickness insurance introduces no new objective in the field of social insurance, yet one aim stands out so far above all others that it may well make the technical organisation of sickness insurance tend to develop in a quite different direction from that of accident insurance.

The essential aims of insurance are three in number :

(*a*) to remedy the physical injury (therapeutics);

(*b*) to remedy the economic injury (compensation);

(*c*) to prevent the physical injury by eliminating its causes or at least reducing their effects (hygiene).

The importance of the third of these varies widely in the different branches of insurance; in the present writer's opinion it takes the primary place in sickness insurance, more definitely so than in any of the other branches. The following pages will be devoted to explanation of the reasons for this belief, and of the possible consequences of its acceptance on some of the points to be dealt with by a Draft Convention on sickness insurance.

In all countries the question of insurance benefits has been the subject of full discussions and has always given rise to the greatest differences of opinion during the period of preparation of the laws.

The financial difficulties met by every attempt to widen the field and the number of benefits explain the fact already noted by Manes[1], in examining the legislation of various countries, that this crucial problem of social insurance has not had the attention which its importance deserves, and in most countries the system of benefits is still governed by the earliest laws on the subject. And yet the problem of benefits is the pivot of every law, and even of every private contract, in every branch of insurance, since its value, whether intrinsic and moral, or real and effective, depends on the nature, duration, magnitude and extension of the benefits it confers on the insured.

Manes also rightly remarks that the laws of most countries give the preference to benefits in money rather than in kind. But all students of social insurance are now unanimous in holding that benefits in kind are much the more important and efficacious. This opinion is amply confirmed by the practice commonly followed by insurance institutions, which have been much more generous than the laws in granting medical aid and promoting hygiene.

It is in any case not difficult to grasp the correctness of this idea and its value for the community. The object of benefits in kind is to preserve the existing state of health of the insured person or to restore him to his former working capacity. Hence they constitute the fundamental reason for every measure of insurance, since good health is not only life's most precious belonging but is also the prime source of the labour supply. If it is considered that both for the worker and for the community the economic injury is always dependent on the gravity and duration of the physical incapacity, it will at once be recognised that when the incapacity for work occurs at long intervals or is of brief duration, the worker can remedy the loss of earnings more or less quickly by some sacrifice by either himself or his family, or by means of resources of some other kind, and that the effects for the community may be negligible. The principle of the waiting period adopted in almost all laws for the payment of money benefits is based on this idea.

Injuries and still more sicknesses, on the other hand, not properly treated or not completely cured leave perceptible traces in the organism which always reduce the individual's working capacity, keeping him for a longer or shorter period in a state of weakness,

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[1] *International Labour Review*, Vol. XI, No. 5, May, 1925, pp. 611-635 : " Social Insurance Benefits ", by Prof. Alfred MANES.

or preparing the way for a further attack, and hasten the oncome of permanent invalidity. If account is taken of the effect on the worker's state of mind and productive capacity of all real physical suffering and all anxiety as to his state of health, it will easily be understood that the economic injury resulting from the bad state of his health, or merely from its variable or uncertain condition, is far beyond the sum paid him by the insurance institution, and has further effects on the whole economy of labour and of the community. Individual and general interests therefore require that the restoration of working capacity should be placed in the foreground of the question of compensation.

The workers have for some time called attention to the importance of this question. While some of their collective expressions of opinion may have supported the belief that they are more anxious to satisfy economic needs than to safeguard their health they do in fact show due zeal on behalf of the latter when they can judge the importance of their needs without being influenced by political motives. This is shown by the fact that while twenty years or so ago a large number of voluntary mutual benefit societies gave their members only money benefit for sickness or accident, now on the contrary benefits in kind are much more frequent, and some societies have abolished money payments altogether. In Switzerland the sickness funds that provide only medical treatment, drugs, etc. and give no money benefits have seen their membership grow in recent years, while those which give only money benefits have had to record a reduction in their membership[1].

Moreover, in the most advanced industrial countries, the contracts of employment, which at first regulated only the economic relations between employers and workers, now almost always contain provisions for the supply of medical aid and for measures of hygiene, on the request of the workers.

But the lessons to be learnt from the policy of all social insurance institutions are even more significant and instructive. It is in fact extremely easy to establish the fact that the benefits in kind granted by them are much more liberal than those prescribed by the law, and that they are daily becoming more generous still. There has been rapid advance from the granting of medical treatment and drugs in the patient's home to hospital treatment, from treatment by the general practitioner to that by the specialist, from the supply of drugs to that of treatment more expensive

[1] Cf. *Industrial and Labour Information*, 5 Oct. 1923, p. 40.

and calling for a special organisation, such as cures in sanatoria and climatic or hydrotherapeutic establishments, electrotherapy or radiotherapy, massage, kinesitherapy, supply of prosthetic or orthopaedic appliances, etc.

In Italy, for instance, the only benefit in kind imposed by the law on industrial accidents is the provision of first aid to the injured. The National Accident Insurance Fund, on the contrary, has instituted an extremely liberal series of benefits for its members, covering all kinds of therapeutic treatment, by the creation of numerous first-aid posts and dispensaries, admission to hospitals and to mechanico-physical treatment, supply of prosthetic appliances for use when at work, and lastly, functional and vocational re-education. In this way it safeguards its economic interests, since the rapid and complete restoration of the physical energies of the worker, and of functions which would otherwise be out of action or at least weakened, shortens the period of incapacity for work and avoids relapses and many new accidents.

The life insurance companies are also now acting on the same principle, although they have no legal or moral duty of this kind, their statutory position being exclusively economic. Everyone has heard of the examples offered by the three largest American companies, the Metropolitan, the Prudential, and the New York, and by some English companies of the same type, which make their clients undergo a periodical medical examination, advise them on their health, provide moral and material aid of various kinds to cure any diseases or weakness they may be suffering from, and provide trained nurses who visit their families, and carry on active health propaganda in the homes. This enables many individuals to have an early diagnosis of disease and to cure it in good time, and also ensures effective protection of mothers and children. The results are most remarkable, for the companies in question have succeeded in lowering the death rate among the insured far below that for the remainder of the population, and so in more than recouping their expenditure on medical aid and the diffusion of information about health.

Many other examples could be cited of the ever-growing tendency of special welfare and insurance institutions of every kind to take the initiative in making the provision of remedial and preventive aid take precedence over their purely economic function. Enough has however perhaps been said to justify the conclusion that in any new laws on sickness insurance this principle should be clearly and explicitly sanctioned.

The present writer is in agreement with many students of the subject in holding that the separation made by the various laws between accident, sickness, and invalidity insurance is not in accordance either with theoretical considerations or with practical requirements; nor does it seem necessary to keep the various insurance institutions distinct from one another. The two risks — accident and sickness — which from the legal point of view seem the farthest apart must be considered from the point of view of health as morbid events or facts which produce a temporary or permanent incapacity for work, and which must be prevented, or removed, or remedied. Nor is there any difference, at least in general lines, between benefits in kind whether their object is the remedying of accident or of sickness; they can vary only in details. Even the non-expert cannot be in any doubt that benefits in the shape of medical aid and the help of a nurse, in a dispensary or at home, the supply of drugs, treatment in hospitals, sanatoria, convalescent homes, etc., and hydropathic or climatic cures, are common to both sickness and accident. But other therapeutic measures, which seem at first sight intended solely for the cure of accidents, frequently serve to cure sicknesses, since the difference between the two is in the cause, not in the clinical form of the affection. Thus physico-mechanical treatment and functional re-education of the organs are just as necessary for the cure of paralysis and of the contractions due to wounds as for those due to diseases of the central or peripheral nervous system, and orthopaedic and prosthetic appliances are used in cases of deformity or mutilation of the limbs or face resulting from accidents as for those due to tuberculosis of the bones or joints, lupus of the face, leprosy, cancer, etc.

At the same time, if we consider the treatment, etc. provided for sick persons and that given to the victims of accidents, an essential difference emerges. In the latter case the object is almost exclusively the cure of the lesion or the restoration of the working capacity of the insured person; there can be only an indirect and remote influence on the prevention of other accidents. Hence the therapeutic measures are almost always an end in themselves; their effects are exhausted in the individual. For sickness, on the contrary, there are two aims, therapeutic on the one hand, preventive and hygienic on the other; the latter acts for the benefit both of the individual, preserving him from the danger of the disease recurring or becoming chronic, and of the community and the race, as it prevents the spread of the sickness among the living and the decadence of future generations. The

social utility is superior, or at least equal, to the individual gain.

The difference between accident and sickness in the field over which their effects are felt is a consequence of the difference between their natures. Accident is a personal affection, not transmissible either to neighbours or to offspring. Further, the organic lesions produced by it almost always affect circumscribed parts of the organism not essential to life (organs of movement), and, especially when stabilised, they remain confined to these parts, do not increase in size or spread to other organs or disturb their functions; hence they are compatible with a good general state of health and even with a feeling of well-being. Many men seriously wounded in industry or war, although needing continual help to carry out the elementary acts of life (taking food, movement, etc.), find their condition fairly tolerable since they live without real suffering and are not subject to relapses.

It is only in a few cases in which the accident arouses latent disease, or causes lesions of important internal organs (heart, kidneys, lungs, central nervous system), that the consequences (subjective or objective) of accident are similar to those of sickness.

Sickness, on the contrary, almost always affects not only organs and functions that are vital for the organism, but also the whole economy of the body. It is also often capable of spreading to other individuals, and also of being transmitted by direct heredity, in the form of constitutional weakness, predisposition to disease, etc. In many cases, too, sickness does not end in absolute and complete cure. Oftener than is thought the cure is only apparent and temporary; the struggle between the morbid cause and the organism is prolonged with periods of remission and climax. In many cases it leaves a state of physiological disequilibrium, reflected in a state of general debility or weakness of some organ, or of continued indisposition, which reduces more or less the working capacity, or forces the individual to interrupt his work frequently for longer or shorter periods.

The consequences of all these events pass beyond the individual and react on the community as a whole. Every relapse, every recurrence of the disease, and acute periods in the state of debility of some organ or organic system, mean a renewal of requests for relief to the insuring institution. Hence the true interest of these institutions demands not only that the treatment of the sickness be applied in good time and completely, i.e. to the point of complete clinical and functional cure, but also that the sick person continue

to receive assistance so long as this can help to avert or delay further interruptions of his working capacity, or in other words until it has had its most complete prophylactic effect.

This is precisely the line of conduct that experience has dictated to the insurance institutions, obliging them to combine the provision of medical aid and drugs at the patient's home (ordinarily the only form of aid prescribed by the law) with hospital treatment, the services of the visiting nurse, specialised treatments, visits to convalescent homes and sanatoria, etc. An example of the value of this policy is that it has been found that a tuberculous patient, after six months in a sanatorium, can work for two years, while when treated by ordinary therapeutic methods he needs almost continual assistance.

In infectious and contagious diseases (which represent some 90 per cent. of all cases of sickness) the prophylactic effects of treatment are still more obvious, since there is no more effective way of stopping the spread of the disease than by rapid isolation and treatment of the patient. It is especially from this point of view that hospital treatment acquires considerable importance. More often, however, it is the specific nature of the drug used which acts as a prophylactic. Many examples can in fact be cited of infectious diseases which owe their rapid diminution to the discovery or widespread application of efficacious therapeutic media.

In Italy malaria used to account for an average of 15,000 deaths a year down to 1900, in which year a law ordered the free supply of quinine to all agricultural and other workers employed in the malarial zones. From then onwards there was a progressive fall in the number of deaths; in 1923 it was only 3,303. The annual average number of deaths from diphtheria was 12,000 down to 1899, the date of the introduction of the specific serum in the treatment of the disease; after that year the number of deaths fell steadily and in 1923 it was only 2,749. Similarly in all the European States there has been a notable reduction of syphilis since the introduction of salvarsan in the treatment of this disease[1]. Suitable treatment applied in good time has therefore a much higher value in all cases of sickness than it has in cases of accident, since its effects go beyond the benefit to the individual and react favourably on the

[1] In 1920 the Belgian Government decided that arsenical preparations and medical treatment should be provided free for all sufferers from syphilis. The frequency of new infections as a percentage of all cases of syphilis fell from 25 per cent. in 1920 to 12 per cent. in 1923; in Brussels it fell from 23 to 9 per cent., in Antwerp from 34 to 16 per cent., and in Liège from 34 to 12 per cent. in 1924.

insurance institution and the community, thanks precisely to the prophylactic work it almost always accomplishes, as a natural consequence of its function.

But the question of treatment for sickness has also other aspects which must be given serious consideration in a system of social insurance : i.e. a system intended to cover the greater part of the population. Therapeutic measures in cases of sickness are closely bound up with research into the causes and origins of sicknesses, and the ways they are transmitted. This knowledge is not always necessary for accidents, especially those due to wounds, but is indispensable in a very large number of sicknesses. In the latter, in fact, besides active and direct treatment of the disease, the patient has to be withdrawn from those conditions of surroundings, food, work, etc., which have helped to produce the sickness, and which might still paralyse or impede the defensive action of the organism, or make other individuals ill. In sickness, therefore, therapeutic and hygienic measures must supplement each other in every case.

Further, we have already seen that while the results of accidents tend to become stabilised, i.e. are hardly ever liable to become worse, sickness frequently leaves behind more or less perceptible traces, which as a rule make themselves manifest in a state of functional weakness of some essential organ. The frequency of these consequences is shown by the medical examinations of the industrial population made on various occasions. There are extant many reports by factory doctors who on their periodical examinations of the workers in the undertakings have found that a proportion of them, varying from 30 to 60 per cent., are in need of medical treatment. Similarly, from the examination of English workmen during the recruiting period, it was found that only 46 per cent. of them were in good health, and fit for military service. It is precisely these human elements, enfeebled or damaged by previous sickness, which make the most frequent contribution to the list of acute cases involving an interruption of work ; these cases can be largely avoided by advice with regard to health and minor treatment given in good time, with a view to placing their organism in the most favourable conditions for permanent cure or for acquiring increased powers of resistance to the disease. This form of aid may be called *preventive*, since remedial measures have marked prophylactic importance. And this explains why preventive aid applied to individuals who are not yet incapacitated for work, but whose health is threatened by some organic weakness, has been adopted spontaneously, not only by sickness insurance institutions,

but also by life insurance companies, which recognise its great utility.

Lastly, the intimate connection between sickness insurance and invalidity insurance must always be borne in mind. The latter is the necessary complement of the former, because it provides for the remedying of permanent or too prolonged injuries caused by sickness. The financial burden it imposes therefore depends very largely on the energy and success of the therapeutic and prophylactic work done on behalf of sickness insurance.

It may be added that in countries with the three kinds of insurance (accident, invalidity, and sickness) the sickness insurance institutions are made responsible for the treatment of the victims of accidents; and it will be seen at the conclusion of the article that sickness insurance, in virtue of its therapeutic and hygienic measures, is the foundation stone of the whole system of social insurance. It has acquired and maintains this pride of place thanks to the greater importance to be attached to remedying the physical rather than the economic injury, and to the valuable prophylactic results of this policy.

Legislation, in its turn, which hardly ever precedes the work of the insurance institutions, but gives its sanction to their experience, has, from the outset, definitely taken its stand on this particular point. Although, as already pointed out, the laws say very little about benefits, and especially benefits in kind, yet it is easy to note that there are still some few States that give persons compulsorily insured against accidents the right to money benefit and not to treatment, and no State extends the benefit of treatment to the family of the insured. There is, on the contrary, no single law on compulsory sickness insurance which does not grant medical treatment and drugs to the insured; in many cases these are also granted to his family. The Danish Act of 1915-1921 provides that *voluntary* mutual sickness funds must provide medical treatment and drugs as a condition of legal recognition, receipt of the state subsidy, and affiliation to the Invalidity Insurance Fund.

In sickness insurance, again, the right to medical treatment and drugs is not subject to any restriction depending on minimum period of membership of the fund; benefit begins from the first day of the sickness and is total, i.e. it includes at least the indispensable elements of the necessary treatment. Money benefits, on the contrary, are subject to a waiting period, and only partially make good the economic loss. Lastly, benefits in kind are for all insured per-

sons alike ; money benefits are not, as they are dependent on the magnitude of the insured person's wages.

Such explicit recognition as this by the laws of all States shows better than any other evidence the importance of therapeutic measures in sickness insurance. But even without taking any of these arguments into account, there are two considerations of great value which lead to the same conclusion. The first is that therapeutic aid for sickness includes also the treatment of all non-occupational accidents, i.e. accidents not caused on the occasion of work. The second is the enormously greater number of cases of sickness than of accident. In Italy, for instance, in 1917 the deaths due to accidents were in the proportion of 0.19 per thousand insured workers, while the total death rate of the population, and therefore presumably also of the workers in question, was 19.20 per thousand, or a hundred times as great. If, as is *a priori* to be supposed, the morbidity rates are in the same proportion as the death rates, then in a single group of the population the sick persons to be treated are 99 times as numerous as the victims of accidents. It is obvious from this that the two call for different types of organisation, and that the need for treatment is vastly greater for sickness than for accidents.

In the States in which compulsory sickness insurance has been in operation for some time, and still more in those which have invalidity insurance, the insurance institutions have passed rapidly from the recognition of the prophylactic importance of a liberal system of therapeutic measures of all kinds to that of the utility of measures of hygiene independent of the treatment, or, in other words, that form of benefit which is called *preventive aid*. This new tendency has developed parallel to the extension of the field of application of insurance.

The necessity of preventing sickness by combating its causes, not only in the individual but also in his surroundings both in the factory and at home, was little heeded when the compulsion to insure was limited to some categories of wage-earners in industry. But it became imperious when insurance was extended to all industries and to other categories of workers (land workers, small employees, teachers, etc.), i.e. when workers' insurance became social insurance and included within its scope all economically weak sections of the population. Then the sickness funds discovered the economic advantage of starting or increasing propaganda on hygiene and of providing social assistance in the home : they built

hospitals and convalescent homes not only to provide better treatment for the insured, but also to isolate sufferers from infectious diseases, who might spread the disease to their families : they founded crêches and orphanages to guard the health of the children against the dangers of unhealthy houses or the absence of their mothers ; they contributed large subsidies to the struggle against some social diseases (tuberculosis, venereal disease, alcoholism, mental diseases) and gave their support to schemes for applying the principles of eugenics to promote the improvement of the race. That is to say, the necessity was felt both of improving and preserving the health of the present generation and also of creating better conditions for future generations. The invalidity insurance funds for their part, having much greater financial resources at their disposal, and in consideration of their aim of preventing more remote cases of disease, provided the funds for schemes on a larger scale for improving the hygienic conditions of the worker's surroundings (dwelling-houses, aqueducts, drainage schemes, etc.) with a view to eliminating the permanent causes of ill-health and of rendering permanent the benefits resulting from the immediate or more direct prophylactic measures taken by the sickness funds.

In this way the sickness and invalidity insurance institutions (but the former rather than the latter) were driven to carry the aid they provided back to the true source of the injury ; to fight social evils in their causes and in their consequences with a view to preserving the health and the working capacity of the insured so as to reap the best fruits of the heavy sacrifices imposed by the granting of this aid on the lines of the programme put forward by Kaufmann[1] (the distinguished authority who was for many years chairman of the German Federal Insurance Office). As pointed out elsewhere by the present writer[2] their policy is a direct and logical consequence of their characteristic of being *permanent* institutions, which was specially assigned to them because insurance was *compulsory*. Voluntary insurance is of short duration ; it does not generally include charges whose benefits are extensible to the family of the insured, since it is individual rather than social and its duties relative to the individual are kept strictly within the field of contingent compensation. Compulsory insurance, on the contrary, must not only provide its benefits for a limited group of persons or for a specified short period, but must provide for the

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[1] Cf. MANES : *loc. cit.*, p. 630.

[2] " Igiene e Previdenza sociale ", in *Le Assicurazioni Sociali*, 1925, No. 1.

economic needs and the relief of the whole working population until its extinction, and of the others who will come along to take their place, almost *ad infinitum*.

Thus, compulsory insurance has regard to the future, to a great extent combining hygienic and curative measures, since the financial interest of its institutions demands that a large part of their activities be devoted to avoiding, so far as possible, recurrence of the disease, its becoming worse and resulting in permanent disability, or its transmission to the offspring of the insured person, by direct or indirect heredity, or to other individuals by infection. It is also indispensable to combat the causes, inherent in the ordinary surroundings or working conditions, giving rise to the disease, and to prevent disease from spreading unchecked among the masses of the insured population. Experience has proved that the application in good time of suitable prophylactic measures may actually result in diminishing the burden of both therapeutic and financial responsibility which the institutions will have to support in the more or less distant future, thus affording confirmation of the principle that hygienic measures preserve health and prolong life.

In this connection, it may be noted that the extension of therapeutic assistance to the members of an insured person's family and of hygienic measures to his home surroundings is not, as might be thought, advocated solely with the object of lightening the economic loss which the worker may suffer as a consequence of the illness of his wife and children, nor with a view to the social necessity for maintaining intact the efficiency of those members of his family who will themselves become the workers of tomorrow. It is largely a condition imposed by the technical requirements of the organisation of prophylaxis, since the family is the main factor of the surroundings in which the insured person lives. Those who have specialised in these matters know that it is hopeless to look for satisfactory and lasting results from preventive measures when these are applied only to a small group of individuals and not to the rest of the population of which they form a part, and when individual reclamation is not associated with the reform of physical and social surroundings. The study of pathology demonstrates the existence of a multiplicity of reactions both in the various diseases and in their morbid causes, and warns us that the latter have neither autonomous existence nor isolated domicile, but that, instead, the same pathogenic factor determines the preparation of a suitable soil for many forms of disease, and is co-existent with various other factors in the same surroundings. Similarly, just

as it is impossible efficaciously to guard an individual against disease without extending the same protection to the persons among whom he lives, and *vice versa*, so all prophylactic measures taken for the purpose of protecting him against any specified disease will also help to preserve him from other diseases as well as to protect those among whom he lives. Social existence gives rise to such close bonds between the various members of a community, and between the latter and its surroundings, that individual hygiene cannot be separated from public hygiene, nor the improvement of a part from that of the whole.

It would, therefore, be absurd, both from the scientific and from the technical points of view, to institute insurance against any one disease, since this would entail the establishment of all sorts of therapeutic and prophylactic measures, and even then many of the causes giving rise to the disease, and themselves arising from other diseases, would remain unaffected. In the same way, it would be illogical to extend therapeutic and prophylactic assistance to the head of the family without providing therapeutic and hygienic protection for the family as a whole.

Public health authorities (state, provincial, and communal) now recognise this as the only practical and efficacious method of procedure. The spirit inspiring it is that which has transformed the old forms of charitable assistance afforded by private persons or religious communities into the legal obligation, now accepted in all civilised countries, to combat and provide treatment for disease.

It has in fact been found that the campaign against disease is entirely without results to the community at large so long as the application of measures taken is restricted to individuals or to certain limited classes of people. Now that all countries are endeavouring to establish efficient measures for the care of public health, the legislator has approved standards for the prevention of disease to be applied to all citizens without distinction, and concedes the right to receive treatment at the expense of the state to all who are economically weak ; wealthy persons being excluded on the assumption that they are in a position to provide efficient treatment for themselves.

There is yet another aspect of the question which must not be overlooked. If we examine the reasons which have led States to grant financial assistance for the purpose of instituting sickness and invalidity insurance, it will readily be seen that there are two primary motives for this. The first lies in recognition of the fact

that the diseases principally affecting the workers are not invariably a direct consequence of the work done, but are very often the result of economic, legal, or political conditions arising from the social order, and determining the strength or weakness of individual resistance to the specific risk attaching to each class of work. These conditions influence not only the worker but also his family, i.e. his wife and children, who represent the strength of the race which it is the state's duty to protect.

In this way the community is enabled to repair that part of the injury which it either produces or at least does not succeed in avoiding. The second motive, however, is founded upon the conception, or at least the presupposition, that social insurance acts as a substitute for the state in respect of the hygienic and therapeutic functions which the state has to perform towards the great mass of insured persons, who in some countries constitute more than one-third of the entire population[1]. If insurance benefit were to be regarded solely as a means of covering industrial risks, it would be illogical, as stated elsewhere[2], to demand a financial contribution from the worker, seeing that the latter does not participate in the profits of the undertaking and hence should not be called upon to bear any part of the losses. It would be still more illogical to require a state contribution, which would simply be a gratuity at the expense of other citizens, having neither part nor lot in the competition between employers and workers.

Instead, the financial aid given by the state to social insurance seems wholly justified when the therapeutic and hygienic functions of the latter are fulfilled in such a way as to afford efficacious assistance in this respect (which would otherwise have to be provided for by the state) to the poorer classes, and thus to protect the health of the population as a whole.

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This is not the place in which to enter into details concerning the manner in which these duties should be carried out by the sickness insurance institution. It may, however, be mentioned that

[1] There are in Great Britain 15 million and in Germany more than 20 million persons insured against sickness.

[2] Cf. Loriga : *Nuovi orizzonti della igiene e della previdenza sociale.* Rome, 1926.

in order to make possible the attainment of the hygienic purposes of insurance, it is requisite in the first place to extend therapeutic and hygienic assistance to the members of the insured person's family, more especially as regards the function of maternity, provision for which is now in all countries regarded as a necessary form of sickness benefit. In the second place, it is essential that hospital treatment be made available for the greatest possible number of sick persons, since treatment in an institution of this kind not only shortens the duration of the illness but avoids the risk of infection. In addition, any specialised treatment which may be considered desirable must be made available for insured persons and for the members of their families, since all forms of disease and the weakness of any one organ react upon the organism as a whole. But the greatest need of all is for the extension of preventive aid, more especially in the case of pregnant or nursing women, and of all weak or afflicted persons.

These are the prophylactic, direct, and immediate tasks to be dealt with by sickness insurance. But, in addition to the work which has to be accomplished in the field of hygiene as applied to the individual, long-continued prophylaxis must be kept in view; this, as already stated, really pertains to invalidity insurance, and consists essentially in the reform of physical surroundings and the application of eugenic principles for the protection of the race.

These two tasks are closely bound up with each other both in theory and in practice; and their parallel development is of the greatest scientific interest and financial utility. Hence it would seem opportune that in drafting the programme and explaining the scope of benefits in kind in connection with sickness insurance, account be taken of the hygienic functions which it will have in common with invalidity insurance, in order to avoid interference or overlapping.

Moreover, if, as we hope, the concept of the preponderant individual and social utility of benefits in kind rather than money benefit is accepted by the Conference, it would, in the present writer's opinion, be convenient to examine, as a logical corollary, the question of attaching to the sickness insurance institution a separate department for the organisation and application of hygienic and therapeutic aid, distinct from the administrative organisation of insurance, and of allowing it sufficient freedom in the exercise of these functions to ensure the fulfilment of its task in the most satisfactory manner.

The proposal is nota new one; it wasput forward in 1925 by the

Social Insurance Committee set up by the Australian Parliament[1]. Moreover, it had not only been suggested but also drafted in concrete form, at the end of 1919, by the Italian Government Commission entrusted with the preparation of a draft scheme of sickness insurance. In the present writer's opinion it merits further serious examination, since it is better qualified than any existing form of medical service to deal with hygienic, as distinct from therapeutic, insurance problems.

Conclusions

The object of benefits in kind as applied to accident insurance differs considerably from that which they have in relation to sickness and invalidity insurance. In the former case, the principal task to be fulfilled is one of preservation and reconstruction, which ceases with the individual; in the latter, the therapeutic function is associated with that of prophylaxis, present or future, and provision is made for prevention of the spread of disease, for improvement of the health of the present generation, and for the creation of more favourable conditions of existence for those to come. Thus, not only the individual but society as a whole benefits by it.

In view of this diversity of function, it might almost be said that accident insurance is an institution established principally for the purpose of affording assistance; the other forms of insurance are in the nature of social welfare institutions and as such form the most valuable auxiliaries of the state policy in relation to public health. In the author's opinion, in view of this difference in the aim of sickness insurance (the scope of which is not alone the restoration of the health of insured persons but also the preservation of their physical well-being and that of the whole community), the organisation of the medical service should be regarded as a matter of much greater importance, and should be rendered entirely independent of the administrative service. Moreover, it is felt that the following conditions are requisite for the efficient functioning of the medical service, both from the therapeutic and from the hygienic points of view:

(*a*) That assistance be made available for the greatest possible number of insured persons, both manual and intellectual workers, and for all the members of their families, living with or supported by them.

[1] Cf. Manes: *Le Assicurazioni Sociali*, 1926, No. 6.

(*b*) That limits of benefit laid down for the purpose of repairing physical injury and for prophylactic assistance be made as broad as possible.

(*c*) That the needs of pregnant women, mothers, and children of all ages receive special consideration.

In the present writer's opinion, sickness insurance established on these lines may become a really efficient adjunct to the social assistance of the economically weak, which is its ultimate object; and may also contribute to a remarkable extent to the improvement of public health.

Minimum Wages and the International Labour Conference

The subject of " Minimum Wage-Fixing Machinery " has been placed by the Governing Body of the International Labour Office on the agenda of the 1927 Session of the International Labour Conference. In accordance with the double-discussion procedure adopted by the Eighth Session of the Conference, the 1927 Session will make a preliminary examination of the question and indicate the lines on which an international solution may be possible, without however considering the definite text of a Draft Convention or Recommendation. The text of a Draft Convention or Recommendation would be considered and decided upon by the 1928 Session of the Conference after consultation with the Governments on points incorporated in a questionnaire agreed to by the 1927 Conference. The purpose of the present article is to outline the general problem of fixing minimum wages and to review the chief features of the minimum wage systems of various countries in relation to the possibilities of action by the Conference[1].

THE regulation of wages is generally effected by individual or collective agreement. However, during the last thirty years, regulation by the state has developed to a greater or less extent in a considerable number of countries. The object of state regulation has usually been the protection of the worker against unduly low wages, and, at the same time, the prevention of unfair competition between employers with regard to wages. Evidently the state cannot raise the wages of any group of workers to a level higher than that warranted by their productive capacity. But

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[1] A comprehensive Report on *Minimum Wage-Fixing Machinery* has been prepared for the Conference. Articles have been published in previous numbers of the *Review* describing the minimum wage legislation and practice of Australia and New Zealand (Oct.-Dec. 1924), Canada (April 1924), the United States (May-June 1921), Great Britain (Aug. 1923), France (Aug. 1926), and Norway (Dec. 1925). An article has also been published in the *Review* on certain of the general problems involved in fixing minimum wages (May 1925), as has an article describing the minimum wage laws for the protection of workers in low-paid industries in various European countries (Nov. 1921).

without state regulation there is always the danger that, owing to ignorance or weakness in bargaining power, the wages, especially of unorganised workers, may fall to an unduly low level. The desire on the part of many employers to pay reasonable wages may fail of realisation owing to the competition of less scrupulous rivals. Also the effects of underpayment are often cumulative and tend to perpetuate the payment of low wages; an inferior standard of living reacts on the efficiency of the worker, while the employer who can obtain labour cheaply has less inducement to improve his productive organisation, on which the payment of high wages largely depends.

A second object of state regulation of wages has been the protection of the community against industrial conflicts. Usually conflicts involving hardship to the community occur between well-organised groups of employers and workers. Interference by the state is not generally required for regulating wages in the trades concerned. The organisations themselves are sufficiently strong and well informed to protect their own interests. But if the state, in order to safeguard the interests of the community as a whole, interferes in the relations between these organisations and declares strikes or lockouts illegal, it becomes responsible for the establishment of an alternative to collective bargaining as a means of regulating wages. However, to protect the community against industrial conflicts the state is called upon to provide the alternative only in cases of dispute, whereas to protect the unorganised worker against unduly low wages, the state must usually undertake to establish mechanism for the *systematic* fixing of minimum wages in trades in which low-paid unorganised workers are employed, whether a dispute has occurred or not.

In placing the subject of minimum wages on the agenda of the 1927 Session of the International Labour Conference, the Governing Body of the International Labour Office evidently had in view the protection of the unorganised worker against unduly low wages rather than the protection of the community against industrial disputes. The item on the agenda is framed as follows:

> Minimum wage-fixing machinery in trades in which organisation of employers and workers is defective and where wages are exceptionally low, with special reference to the home-working trades.

The intention of the Governing Body would therefore appear to be that the Conference should take action with a view to stimulating

the establishment in various countries of machinery for fixing minimum wages in badly organised low-paid trades. Already many industrial States have applied the principle of regulation to protect low-paid unorganised workers. The application of the principle in other States would appear desirable as a measure of protection to the workers in those States. Also such action would be in agreement with the idea expressed in the preamble of Part XIII of the Treaty of Peace, that " the failure of any nation to adopt humane conditions of labour is an obstacle in the way of other nations which desire to improve conditions in their own countries ". The obstacle would be removed to a greater or less extent by the adoption of a system of minimum wage regulation in all countries.

Field of Application

In establishing machinery for the protection of low-paid unorganised workers, a number of countries have limited the field of application to the home-work trades. The minimum wage legislation in Norway, Austria, Czechoslovakia, Germany, and the Argentine Republic is generally limited to home work, while in France it applies mainly to female home workers in the clothing and allied trades only[1]. The reasons for such limitation are chiefly that the conditions of home workers were frequently found on investigation to be especially unsatisfactory and there was little hope of improvement except by state intervention. The development of organisation among home workers is particularly difficult; large numbers of these workers are women, while the isolation in which the work is performed prevents opportunities for contact. The States which have enacted legislation for the protection of home workers are thus concentrating on a fairly well defined field in which conditions are often particularly unsatisfactory.

It is evident, however, that in addition to home workers there may be certain other groups of workers whose wages are unduly low and for whom there is little hope of improvement by

[1] Male home workers paid at rates lower than the minimum fixed for similar work for female home workers may, if necessary, institute proceedings to ensure that the same minimum shall apply also to them.

the development of organisation. In drafting the item on the agenda of the Conference in the terms already quoted, the Governing Body recognised that although the need of protection for home workers is especially great, extension of protection to other groups of workers may also be required. In effect, the Governing Body suggested the desirability of establishing machinery for regulating the wages of both male and female workers, whether home or factory, in those trades in which wages are unduly low and in which there is little prospect of effective regulation by means of collective agreements.

In a number of countries legislation on these lines has been enacted. The setting up of machinery to regulate the wages of both home and factory workers in trades where protection is considered necessary is provided for by legislation in Great Britain and Northern Ireland, in the Irish Free State, Canada, the United States[1], New Zealand, Australia, and South Africa. In Canada and the United States the laws have hitherto been framed mainly for the protection of female workers, the view being generally held in these countries that men are able to protect their own interests. However, in Canada there appears to be a tendency to extend protection in certain cases to men[2]. In the Province of Alberta male workers in any given occupation may not be paid at a lower rate than the minimum fixed for women in the same occupation. In British Columbia an Act providing for the fixing of minimum wages for men was passed at the end of 1925. In Australia and New Zealand the measures for protecting the worker against unduly low wages have been intimately associated, except in the States of Victoria and Tasmania, with those for protecting the community against industrial disputes. However, throughout these countries the systems of regulation in force do in fact protect the worker, whether home or factory, male or female, against unduly low wages. It may be added that certain homework laws

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[1] Decisions of the Supreme Court of the United States declaring unconstitutional the minimum wage laws of the District of Columbia and the State of Arizona have rendered uncertain the position of such legislation in the United States.

[2] The question of legal minimum wages for men as well as women was examined in 1926 by the Canadian House of Commons Select Standing Committee on Industrial and International Relations. The Committee recognised that the provision of the Peace Treaty regarding the payment to the worker of a wage adequate to maintain a reasonable standard of life applies equally to men as to women. It recommended that a Conference of Provincial and Dominion representatives intimately in touch with labour conditions throughout Canada be held in the near future to consult as to the best means to be employed for giving effect to the labour provisions of the Treaties of Peace. (*Labour Gazette*, July 1926, p. 654, and Oct. 1926, p. 950.)

to which reference has already been made recognise the impossibility of regulating satisfactorily the conditions of home workers in any trade without taking into account the conditions of factory workers in the same or allied trades. Thus the Norwegian Home Work Act of 1918 provides that if home work is being driven out owing to the fixing of minimum rates for home workers, these rates may be extended to apply also to workshop or factory work, or special minima may be fixed for such work.

The desirability of legislation providing for the regulation of the wages of both home and factory workers in trades in which wages are unduly low and organisation ill-developed is thus widely recognised. On the basis of this recognition the Conference may decide to adopt a Draft Convention embodying the general principle of establishing state machinery for such trades. It might also call attention in the form of a Recommendation to the special circumstances of the home-work trades.

The home-work trades form a fairly clearly defined group. On the other hand difficulty would arise if an attempt were made to reach an international agreement defining trades in which wages are unduly low and organisation defective. Clearly the Conference would not be required to draw up an international list of the trades to which minimum wage regulations should apply. The trades in which the organisation of employers and workers is defective and where wages are exceptionally low evidently vary from one country to another. Each country would determine for itself, with reference to its own conditions, the trades for which minimum wage-fixing machinery should be established. However, the Conference may wish to indicate, possibly in the form of a Recommendation, certain criteria for defining what is meant by defective organisation, and what wages are exceptionally low. This would be desirable in order to ensure a certain uniformity of application of the Convention in different countries. But difficulties would be encountered in the endeavour to formulate and apply such criteria.

In testing the degree of organisation of workers in any trade the number organised might be compared with the total number in the trade. Organisation might be considered defective if the proportion organised were below a given percentage of the total. More satisfactory might be the proportion of workers covered by collective agreements. With regard to unduly low wages, the rates in force in any occupation might be compared with those for similar work in allied trades. But since wages in a whole group of allied trades may be exceptionally low, a better standard of

comparison might be the average wages paid, e.g. to unskilled workers, in a large number of organised trades. Wages in a given trade might be regarded as unduly low if they were below an agreed percentage of the average wages in the organised trades. However, owing to differences in the development of organisation and economic conditions from one country to another, it would evidently be difficult to secure international agreement on definitions of " defective organisation " and " unduly low wages "[1].

Types of Machinery

As has been already indicated, there appears to be agreement in a number of countries that the state should establish machinery to regulate the wages of workers in trades in which wages are unduly low and organisation defective. Also it has been suggested that this agreement might be expressed in the form of a Draft Convention embodying the general principle. It might at first sight appear desirable that a Draft Convention should also define the type of machinery which would be established. But it would be difficult to secure international agreement regarding the machinery to be set up, as the type varies from one country to another. Nor would such agreement seem necessary. What is essential is that some form of machinery should be set up in each country to improve the conditions of unorganised workers whose wages are unduly low, each country adopting whatever type of machinery it considers most appropriate for the attainment of this end, taking into account its own administrative system. The Conference might, however, call attention by means of a Recommendation to types of machinery which experience has shown to be the most effective. Such a Recommendation would be of value as a guide to States establishing or developing a system for the regulation of minimum wages.

Three types of minimum wage-fixing machinery have been set up by legislation in the different countries, namely, trade boards, general boards, and arbitration courts[1]. The purpose of arbitration

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[1] Whether it is possible or not to secure such definitions, it would be of value if the Government of each country would undertake by a Convention to communicate from time to time to the International Labour Office a list of the trades in which the regulation of minimum wages had been undertaken, the rates fixed, and the number of workers covered.

courts is to settle disputes, and in doing so they may be required to fix minimum wages. However, arbitration courts are called upon to regulate conditions of labour only when industrial peace is threatened, and unless given additional powers may not act in other circumstances. The object in view in placing the subject of machinery for fixing minimum wages on the Agenda of the Conference is the establishment of machinery for the regular and systematic adjustment of the wages of workers in trades in which organisation of employers and workers is defective and wages exceptionally low. The arbitration court system does not appear suitable for this purpose[2].

Under the trade-board system of fixing minimum wages, a separate board is set up in each trade in which wages are to be regulated. A trade board consists of a number of representatives of employers and an equal number of representatives of workers. As far as possible the representative members are nominated by organisations of employers and of workers. However, as trade boards are often set up in trades in which many employers and workers are unorganised, it is necessary to make provision for the representation of these unorganised groups. In addition to representative members there is an impartial chairman, and frequently other impartial members. The impartial members have in practice generally been limited to a number not exceeding one-third of the total membership of the board; in many cases the number has been either one or three.

Trade boards may be established either on a district or on a national basis. Where district boards are set up the problem arises how to ensure satisfactory co-ordination between the work of boards in a given trade in different districts. This problem may be solved by giving the responsible Minister or some other authority a co-ordinating power. Where national trade boards are set up, difficulty regarding co-ordination between the conditions established for different districts disappears. National boards may, however,

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[1] The trade-board system has been adopted in Great Britain, France, Austria, Czechoslovakia, Germany, Norway, the Argentine Republic, the Australian States of Victoria and Tasmania, and, in combination with other types of minimum wage-fixing machinery, in other Australian States. The general-board system has been applied in certain Australian States, and in Canada, the United States, and the Union of South Africa. The principle of compulsory arbitration has been adopted in New Zealand, various Australian States, and Italy; in certain other countries the principle has been applied on a more limited scale.

[2] In New Zealand and certain Australian States, arbitration courts, in addition to making wage awards in cases of dispute, have, from time to time, exercised the functions of a general board.

establish different conditions according to district, generally on the advice of district committees. Where national boards are set up there is still the difficulty that the decisions of a board in one trade may be based on different principles and lead to widely differing results from those adopted by other boards. This difficulty may be avoided to some extent by the co-ordinating activity of the responsible Minister or other competent authority.

The general-board system differs essentially from that of trade boards. Under the trade-board system minimum wages are fixed in any trade by a board, set up for that trade alone, working independently of the boards in other trades. Under the general-board system rates are fixed in different trades by one central body. This system has the advantage of securing co-ordination between the rates fixed in different trades. The difficulty arises, however, that a general board cannot have first-hand practical knowledge of conditions in the various trades. This difficulty may be avoided by the setting up of advisory boards or conferences of employers and workers in the different trades. Before fixing minimum rates in any trade, the general board takes the advice of the trade board or conference. It has, however, power to modify or reject the findings of the advisory board or conference, and to fix rates other than those recommended. If it is not satisfied with the advice given by a board or conference, it may call together a second conference consisting of different persons. Clearly, a general board can rarely establish conditions differing considerably from those recommended by employers and workers in any trade. Usually it will accept the recommendations of the advisory board or conference which it has consulted. In such cases there is little practical difference between the general-board system and the trade-board system. Nevertheless, under the general-board system the deciding authority is one covering a number of trades.

According to the practice of most countries which have adopted the general-board system, the boards consist of three or five members. In some cases they consist entirely of impartial persons; in others they include one, or sometimes two, representatives of employers and an equal number of workers' representatives, together with an impartial chairman.

From the foregoing description of types of minimum wage-fixing machinery, it is evident that the protection of the worker against unduly low wages may be effected either by the trade-board system or the general-board system. In one country a

responsible government department may conduct investigations into wages and the degree of organisation in trades in which it is believed that regulation is required. If investigation shows regulation to be desirable in any given trade, the department may set up a trade board to fix rates in that trade. In another country a general board may be set up to fix rates in any trade in which wages are unduly low and organisation defective, the board itself conducting investigations and, after consultation with employers and workers, fixing rates in the trades in which it considers regulation to be required. It would be difficult for the International Labour Conference to express preference for one or other of these systems, each of which appears to have worked satisfactorily in certain countries. To require by a Draft Convention the adoption of one of the systems would be likely to prevent ratification of the Convention by certain countries which have adopted the alternative system, and which in fact have established an efficient system for fixing minimum wages in trades in which regulation is necessary. By dealing with types of machinery in a Recommendation the Conference would avoid this difficulty.

Bases for Fixing Minimum Wages

With regard to bases for fixing minimum wages, difficulty would arise if the Conference were to attempt to include any definite bases in a Draft Convention. It would appear that the practices of the various countries differ too widely for a rigid agreement to be reached. As in the case of machinery, therefore, the Conference may decide to deal with this question in the form of a Recommendation rather than attempt to include it in a Draft Convention.

A number of minimum wage laws indicate with greater or less precision the basis to be adopted by the wage-fixing body in determining minimum rates. Among the bases specified in these laws are the living-wage principle and that of fixing minimum wages in any trade in relation to the wages paid in other trades where the work involves an approximately similar degree of skill. In making use of these bases account is taken of a third principle, namely that of the capacity of the individual industry or of industry in general to pay the rates proposed. Other laws leave the wage-fixing body free to fix rates according to the principle it considers most satisfactory in the circumstances.

The living-wage principle has received its greatest application in Australia, New Zealand, the United States, and Canada. A frequent practice in the two former countries is for the minimum or basic wages of adult male workers to be fixed according to the requirements of a family of average size, while the basic wage for women workers is determined according to the requirements of a woman dependent solely on her wage but not contributing to the maintenance of others. In the United States and Canada, where, as already stated, the minimum wage laws have hitherto applied mainly to female workers or to female workers and male minors, the minimum wage is based, as in Australia and New Zealand, on the requirements of a woman without dependants.

Since the minimum requirements of a man with a family of given size or of a woman without dependants are approximately the same for workers of given grade in different trades in the same district, it follows that if the living-wage principle is applied there will be uniformity in the minimum rates fixed for the lowest grades of workers of different trades in any given area. The difficulty arises, however, that all trades are not equally prosperous. In some trades depression may be so serious as to prevent the payment of a wage which according to the standards of the country would be considered adequate for reasonable living. Therefore, in Australia, New Zealand, and other countries where the living-wage principle has been applied, the wage-fixing authority may take into consideration not merely the prosperity of each separate industry but the prosperity of industry in general. The adoption of this course has often led in these countries to the fixing of a basic minimum below which no worker shall fall. The least prosperous trades may experience some difficulty in paying this wage and a certain displacement of labour may result. This may be desirable, especially in the case of trades unsuited to a country, in order to prevent the standard of living of the workers from falling to an unduly low level.

A further problem arises in connection with the living wage. The cost of living often differs from one locality to another, and therefore the same money wage implies a different real wage in different localities. Where local variations in the cost of living are considerable, the usual practice is to adjust money wages in such a way that they constitute approximately the same real wages in different areas. Another problem is the adaptation of money wages to changes in the cost of living from date to date. In allowing for such changes use is generally made of index numbers

of the cost of living. It appears necessary, however, that for satisfactory adjustment account should be taken not merely of changes in the cost of living but also of changes in the general prosperity of industry.

If the second principle mentioned above be adopted, namely, the relation to wages of other groups of workers, a minimum wage-fixing body may either base minimum rates in a given trade on the wages paid to similar grades of workers in allied trades, or it may fix them in relation to the wages paid in a number of the chief industries. The former course may be unsatisfactory as a protection against the payment of unduly low wages, since the whole group of allied trades may be in such a depressed condition as to be unable to pay a wage which would be considered reasonable. On the other hand, it would be impracticable to fix the minimum wage for a given trade at the level of the rates paid in most of the chief industries, as, if the trade is passing through a period of depression, to enforce such a wage might cause serious unemployment. A wage might, however, be fixed at a given percentage below the average level in the chief industries.

The third principle which is always taken into consideration directly or indirectly is that of the capacity of industry to pay. This principle may be interpreted in two ways. Wages may be fixed according to the capacity of each individual industry. In this case there may be no guarantee of protection for the workers against an unduly low standard of living. Account should, however, be taken of the possible effects of higher wages in increasing the efficiency of productive organisation and of the workers, i.e. of the potential capacity of the industry being greater than its actual capacity. According to the second interpretation, minimum rates may be fixed in relation to the capacity of industry in general. Interpreted in this way the application of this basis would in practice give results similar to those obtained by the application of the living-wage principle and by that of relation to wages of workers of similar grades in the most important industries[1].

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[1] In discussing the various bases for fixing minimum wages, no account has been taken of the fact that certain workers in a trade may be handicapped by reason of physical or other defect. If employers are called upon to pay the same wages to such workers as to workers of ordinary ability, there would be danger that these handicapped workers might lose their employment. Most minimum wage laws endeavour to avoid this danger by providing for the fixing of special rates for handicapped workers. The need for special rates also arises in the case of juvenile workers and inexperienced adults, for whom also minimum wage laws generally make special provision.

The above discussion of the various bases for fixing minimum wages indicates the complexity of the problem and tends to show that the securing of an international agreement, except in perhaps the most general terms, would be practically impossible. The view appears to be widely held that, apart possibly from a general indication regarding bases, the most satisfactory course is to leave the wage-fixing machinery a large measure of freedom in order that account may be taken of the varying circumstances of economic life. In order that wage-fixing bodies may know what are the circumstances, it is desirable that statistics showing the economic conditions of the different industries should be available. These data would enable wage boards to decide in each case the most appropriate basis to be applied.

Summary

The foregoing review of the chief problems likely to occupy the International Labour Conference when dealing with the subject of minimum-wage-fixing machinery, indicates a large measure of agreement that, for trades in which wages are unduly low and there is no prospect of improvement by means of collective bargaining, some form of machinery should be set up in order to secure a satisfactory regulation of wages. This general principle may form the basis of a Draft Convention. The special problem of the home-work trades might form the subject of a Recommendation.

The trades in which wages are unduly low and organisation defective vary from country to country. Decisions regarding the trades to which machinery for fixing minimum wages should be applied should evidently be taken by the competent government department or other central authority in each country. The International Labour Conference might possibly be able to include in a Recommendation criteria defining " defective organisation " and " unduly low wages " ; such criteria would serve as a guide to the responsible authority in each country when considering the application of minimum wage-fixing machinery to any trade.

Types of machinery and bases for fixing minimum wages also differ from one country to another. They would appear therefore to be more suitable as subjects for inclusion in a Recommendation than for a Draft Convention.

The Administration of Labour Law in Germany

by

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The task of describing the national system of administration of labour laws, which has already been carried out in the Review *for England and France*[1], *has been rendered more difficult for Germany by the fact that this part of her judicial system is at present passing through a period of transition. During the last 36 years there has grown up in Germany alongside the ordinary civil courts an extensive and complicated system of special courts for dealing with disputes concerning labour matters. Reorganisation of this system had become urgent; the necessary changes have recently been embodied in a Labour Courts Act*[2], *which sets up a complete organic structure of labour court authorities with comprehensive jurisdiction and with their own rules of procedure, adapted to the needs of the world of industry and labour and the disputes arising within it, even though essentially based on the rules of civil procedure of the ordinary courts. With a few exceptions, the labour cases formerly within the jurisdiction of the ordinary civil courts are to be transferred to the Labour Courts, and the various special courts for labour matters will ultimately disappear and be replaced by the Labour Courts.*

The following article was prepared while the Labour Courts Bill was still under discussion. The Bill has recently been passed by the Reichstag; measures to carry out its provisions are already in hand, and the Act is to be effective as from 1 July 1927; this date may however be postponed if it should prove impossible to complete the institution of the proposed Courts in time. Until the new Act is fully in operation the existing laws concerning disputes in labour matters remain in force, and the jurisdiction of the existing tribunals (ordinary, Industrial, and Commercial Courts, Mining Industrial

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[1] *International Labour Review*, Vol. X, No. 2, Aug. 1924, pp. 208-235 : "The Interpretation and Administration of Labour Laws in England", by Prof. H. C. GUTTERIDGE; Vol. XIV, No. 1, July 1926, pp. 1-36 : "The Sources and the Interpretation of Labour Law in France", by Edouard LAMBERT, Paul PIC, and P. GARRAUD.

[2] *Arbeitsgerichtsgesetz*, dated 23 Dec. 1926. *Reichsgesetzblatt*, I, 1926, No. 68, p. 507.

Courts, Guilds and Guild Arbitration Courts, and the so-called "provisional" Labour Courts) remains unchanged. Apart, therefore, from its historical value, a detailed account of the system in operation before the passing of the Labour Courts Act is essential to an understanding of the situation in the immediate future, during the transitional period before the existing tribunals and authorities are replaced by the proposed Labour Courts. Further, the new Act cannot be properly understood without some knowledge of the previous situation and the consequent need for reform. The article has therefore been left in its original form, in spite of the change in the de jure *situation introduced by the passing of the Labour Courts Act.*

The Sources and Content of Labour Laws

With the continuous expansion of commerce and transport, technical science and industry, in Germany since the middle of the nineteenth century, there has been a corresponding growth in the army of workers and employees. This growth has been greatest in factories and other industrial workplaces, but has also been considerable in mining, commerce, building, road transport, railways, and shipping, and lastly, though on a much smaller scale, in agriculture. For a long time the legal relations, both to employers and among themselves, of all these workers were regulated solely by the general civil law, i.e. the body of law which applies to all citizens of the state alike, whatever their status or calling; and even to-day this is still true to a large extent. So far as this law exists in written form, it is to be found essentially in the Civil Code (*Bürgerliches Gesetzbuch*) of 18 August 1896 (R.G.Bl.[1], p. 195), which came into force throughout the whole country on 1 January 1900 and is still in force almost without change. In addition, and to some extent before the Code was in being, the increasing importance of relations in the domain of labour law made it necessary in several cases to adopt special legislative provisions for their regulation; these date back to periods when the general civil law varied widely in its details from one German State to another. Such special legislation was however limited to persons in certain occupational categories and certain aspects of their working life. The first regulations of this kind were imposed by the General German Commercial Code (*Allgemeines Deutsches Handelsgesetzbuch*), which became law in all the German States between 1861

[1] R.G.Bl. = *Reichsgesetzblatt.*

and 1865 and was later on developed and transformed into the Commercial Code of the German Empire of 10 May 1897 (R.G.Bl., p. 219). This Code contained regulations on various important points in the relationship between employer and employee and between employer and apprentice in commercial undertakings, and contained provisions for the protection of the life, health, and morals of these workers. Similar regulations in the same two spheres were contained in the Industrial Code for the North German Federation of 21 June 1869 (*Bundesgesetzblatt*, p. 245), applying to workers and apprentices in industry and to some groups of employees engaged in work of an industrial character. Other special regulations affecting safety and conditions of employment were issued by the Federal Government for shipping and inland navigation (for the former in the Commercial Code) and for wood floating, and by the State legislatures for mining. For all other workers — workers in agriculture, forestry, horticulture, etc.— and for all labour questions not covered by the laws enumerated above, the provisions of the general civil law applied. Under the Industrial Code (which subsequently became a Federal law) numerous Orders aiming at the physical and moral protection of the workers in certain kinds of undertaking have been issued by the Federal Council (*Bundesrat*) under the old Constitution, and by the Federal Government (represented by the Federal Ministry of Labour) with the agreement of the Federal Council (*Reichsrat*) under the new. Apart from these Orders, almost the only way in which necessary modifications in the law concerning labour matters were made was by amending and completing the Industrial Code. It was not until much later that special laws and orders of a different kind were passed in considerable numbers to regulate conditions of labour. The most important of these were as follows :

Act of 30 March 1903 on the protection of children employed in industrial undertakings (known as the *Kinderschutzgesetz*) (R.G.Bl., p. 113) ;

Home Work Act as amended to 20 December 1911 (R.G.Bl., p. 976) and 27 June 1923 (R.G.Bl., I, pp. 472, 730) ;

Order of 23 December 1918 of the Council of the People's Commissioners on collective agreements, workers' and employees' committees, and the adjustment of labour disputes (R.G.Bl., p. 1456) ;

Provisional Order of 24 January 1919 on agricultural work (R.G.Bl., pp. 111, 184) ;

Works Councils Act of 4 February 1920 (R.G.Bl., I, p. 147) ;

Employment Exchanges Act of 22 July 1922 (R.G.Bl., I, p. 657);

Hours of Work Order of 21 December 1923 (R.G.Bl., I, p. 1249);

Order of 13 February 1924 on hours of work in hospitals (R.G.Bl., I, pp. 66, 154);

Conciliation Order of 30 October 1923 (R.G.Bl., I, p. 1043).

These various Acts and Orders are in part concerned with workers' protection, but, as shown by their titles, they also deal with the law of the contract of employment and other branches of labour law. Together with the relevant provisions of the Commercial and Industrial Codes, the Orders of the former Federal Council and present Federal Government containing protective provisions for special kinds of undertakings, the laws on inland navigation and wood floating, the State mining laws, etc., and certain provisions of the Civil Code — especially those on the contract of service (*Dienstvertrag*) (sections 611-630) and contract of work (*Werkvertrag*) (sections 631-651) — they constitute the corpus of special labour law existing up to the present. If the provisions of this special legislation are insufficient in any individual case of a labour matter or dispute, the general Civil Code is drawn on to complete them. In particular, there are the provisions of this Code on natural and legal persons (especially legal capacity, declarations of intention, contracts, suspensive conditions, agency and power of attorney, assent and ratification by third parties), computation of time limits, limitation of actions, and security; those from the law of debtor and creditor on liability to pay, refusal of the creditor to accept payment, instrument and matter of contracts, penalties for non-fulfilment of contracts, withdrawal from contracts, and extinguishment of debts, especially by payment, deposit, and set-off; and finally, those from the law on family relationships, in particular those relating to the legal position of married women (especially section 1358 of the Code) and guardianship.

As will be seen from the above, labour law in Germany to-day, like the general civil law, is mainly " written law "; i.e. it is based almost exclusively on laws and similar legislative acts, and custom does not enter into consideration. In the case of some important institutions in the sphere of labour law, such as collective agreements and trade associations, there might indeed be some temptation to think that they are based on custom, because they originate solely by the initiative of the parties concerned and have developed for some considerable time without legislative inter-

ference; to some extent they are still free from any restrictions imposed by law as to their form. But the law applying to them, and enforced in case of dispute, is also written law; it is in fact the general civil law, except when there are special regulations, which up to the present is the case only for a part of the law on collective agreements.

The contribution to labour law, as to other branches, of judicial decisions or " judge-made law " is essentially dependent on the existence of a single Supreme Court. Such a Court is still lacking, in particular for the special section of labour law in which most of the disputes between employer and employed occur, namely, the matter of collective agreements. For the jurisdiction of the ordinary Civil Courts, which have a Central Court of last instance in the Federal Court (*Reichsgericht*), does not extend to all labour disputes. The others are within the jurisdiction of the Industrial and Commercial Courts, which, as will be explained later, are called upon to take decisions in the capacity of Special Courts with expert qualifications; and for these there is no similar central court of appeal to maintain uniformity in the final decisions.

The Federal Court, however, in spite of the further restrictions in this sphere on its competence as court of final appeal in civil-law disputes, has in some measure built up a body of judicial precedents in labour law. Important instances are its numerous decisions as to the interpretation of the term " industry " (*Gewerbe*) in the sense of the Industrial Code, and as to the limits of the legitimacy of weapons to be used in labour disputes, such as boycott, threat or execution of a strike, black-listing, lockout, etc.

For workers' and employees' insurance there is a single Supreme Court, the Federal Insurance Office (*Reichsversicherungsamt*). Its decisions (which for workers' insurance go back to 1885) have made important contributions to the interpretation of legislation in all branches of social insurance, and constitute legal precedents.

Written labour law, as we have seen, is still far from any kind of complete codification. It is rather an aggregate of numerous separate regulations prescribed by the supreme power of the state, scattered about in various legislative acts, many of which apply to the community as a whole. The collection of these regulations under the heading " labour law " is up to the present a purely conceptual, not an actual, process. The term " labour law " is taken to include all legislative and similar provisions which (*a*) apply to workers (employed persons), whether manual workers or salaried employees, (*b*) regulate the legal relationships of these workers as

such to their employers, their fellow-workers, and the state. The definition of the term " worker " (in the broad sense of " employed person ") may vary. More recent labour legislation shows a tendency to widen it ; in particular, it is often extended to include not only manual workers and salaried employees in private undertakings, but also those employed by Federal, State, and municipal administrations and other public bodies. Federal government officials, etc. and members of the Army and Navy are not however included.

The following classification may be given of the subject-matter of labour legislation ; it is that usually adopted in scientific works on the subject :

(1) Contracts of employment ;

(2) Collective contracts of employment :

(*a*) Collective agreements,

(*b*) Works agreements as to rules of employment and other service regulations ;

(3) Labour representation (councils of workers and employees, works councils, workers' statutary representative bodies) ;

(4) Workers' protection ;

(5) Employment and placing (compulsion to employ certain workers, closing down of undertakings, employment exchanges ; unemployment relief as complementary to the preceding measures) ;

(6) Occupational associations (freedom of association, law of trade associations, collective labour disputes, joint industrial associations) ;

(7) Special legislation for separate occupational groups (commerce, agriculture, mining, shipping, domestic service, etc.) ;

(8) Social insurance :

(*a*) Workers' insurance (sickness, accident, invalidity, old-age, and survivors' insurance),

(*b*) Employees' insurance,

(*c*) Miners' insurance.

Social insurance must be included under labour law, as has been done here, if the latter term is taken in its widest sense. But in Germany — for extrinsic and in part political reasons — it has grown up apart from the other branches of labour legislation, and has developed into an independent branch of law. The fact that this cleavage has so far been acquiesced in, and seems likely to persist for some considerable time, is principally to be explained by the comprehensive process of codification which has already

been applied to the two main branches of social insurance — to workers' insurance in the Federal Insurance Code (*Reichsversicherungsordnung*) of 19 July 1911 (R.G.Bl., p. 509), to employees' insurance in the Insurance Act for Employees (*Versicherungsgesetz für Angestellte*) of 20 December 1911 (R.G.Bl., p. 989). A new edition of the Federal Insurance Code, with the numerous amendments and additions made to that date, was published on 15 December 1924 (R.G.Bl., I, p. 779); the Insurance Act for Employees was completely remodelled into the Employees' Insurance Act (*Angestelltenversicherungsgesetz*) of 28 May 1924 (R.G.Bl., I, p. 563). The Federal Miners' Benefit Societies Act (*Reichsknappschaftsgesetz*) of 23 June 1923 (R.G.Bl., I, p. 431) added miners' insurance as a special branch; there is an amending Act dated 25 June 1926 (R.G.Bl., I, p. 291). No decision has yet been taken as to whether social insurance is later on to be combined with the rest of labour law in a single comprehensive Code.

The incompleteness and partial lack of uniformity of existing labour legislation, and the complications due to the way it is scattered through several major Codes and numerous smaller separate Acts, as described above, are plainly unsatisfactory. Gradually the decision has been reached that a comprehensive Code of labour law must be prepared, to deal systematically with the existing material, fill the gaps in it, and at the same time take account of the needs, ideas, and social outlook of to-day. In pursuance of this decision the new Federal Constitution of 11 August 1919 (R.G.Bl., p. 1383) announces the establishment of " unified labour legislation " (Article 157) as a specially important task for Federal legislation. The preparatory work for such a Labour Code was entrusted to a Committee appointed for the purpose, consisting of men and women whose activities, either scientific or practical, were of special eminence in the various fields of labour law. The Committee began work at once, and has since been working in continuous collaboration with the Federal Ministry of Labour. The conclusion of its task is not yet in sight. But in the meanwhile Bills have been drafted for several separate labour laws, partly by the Committee alone and partly in the Federal Ministry of Labour with its collaboration. Acts have already been passed on the basis of some of these drafts, in view of the urgent need for new legislation in some special directions; the most important of these are the laws passed after 1918 in the list given earlier in this article. Other Bills on special subjects are in a more or less advanced stage of progress, but are still waiting decision by the

legislature; these include a comprehensive Conciliation Order, a Labour Courts Bill, a general Bill on the contract of employment, and Bills on wages and domestic servants. Amended texts are also in preparation for the Seamen's Code and the Federal Mining Acts.

The Enforcement of Labour Laws

I. Administrative Authorities and Courts; Criminal Law and Procedure

The term " enforcement " is here used to cover broadly and generally all the different kinds of activity — mainly official — which serve to apply labour legislation to the separate instances which occur in practice. In the courts with jurisdiction over labour matters disputes arising out of contracts of employment or collective agreements are decided on the basis of the written law. From their very nature these courts involve considerable official activity; they therefore need detailed legal regulations and an extensive official organisation if they are to be effective. They will be discussed in detail in the next section of the article. It will be seen that questions of workers' representative bodies, the law on trade associations, and the special laws for separate occupations are also of importance for these courts, in addition to the disputes referred to above.

The other methods of enforcing labour laws are by the administrative authorities, administrative courts, and criminal courts and procedure. We shall begin by examining the various branches of labour law within the jurisdiction of these tribunals, and the different methods of enforcement used by them.

Workers' protection is concerned with the enforcement of conditions prescribed by the law. For this purpose a special government department, the Industrial Inspection Service, was created by section 139 *b* of the Industrial Code. The industrial inspection officials are appointed by the separate States and in carrying out their tasks they have the support of the State police authorities. Their principal activity is to visit factories and see whether the arrangements prescribed by the law[1] for the protection of the workers against dangers to life, health, and morals in workplaces and working processes have been provided and are being

[1] In particular by the Industrial Code, the special Orders of the former *Bundesrat* and the present Federal Government, the Child Protection Act, the Home Work Act, etc.

used. In case of contraventions they have to insist on the carrying out of the regulations and if necessary draw up a prosecution report. The supervision of undertakings as regards hours of work and breaks is similar. A prosecution report is followed by criminal proceedings before the ordinary criminal courts and in accordance with the general rules of criminal procedure, i.e. the procedure applicable to all citizens of the state and all criminal acts.

Most of the Acts and Orders mentioned, as well as others which deal with workers' protection, contain provision for penalties in case of contravention of the regulations. According to these penal clauses the criminal courts have to examine in each case whether there has been a contravention of the law, and if necessary impose the appropriate penalty. In certain circumstances provisions of the general criminal law — at present contained in the Criminal Code for the German Empire of 15 May 1871 (R.G.Bl., p. 127), as amended to 26 February 1876 (R.G.Bl., p. 39) — are applicable, or supplementary use may be made of provisions from the General Part of the Criminal Code, e.g. those on attempted crime, complicity, and extenuating circumstances. Appeals against the decisions of the industrial inspectors can be made to the governments or other authorities of the Federal States.

The district mining officials (*Bergrevierbehörde*) are responsible for the inspection of mines.

According to the Works Councils Act it is the duty of the councils of wage-earning and salaried employees, or, where none exist, of the works council, to assist industrial inspectors and other officials concerned by means of suggestions, advice, and information, and to co-operate in the carrying out of the provisions respecting the regulation of industrial conditions and the prevention of accidents. The carrying out of the provisions of this Act is also partly ensured by penal provisions in the Act itself.

In all such cases too the procedure followed is that of the general criminal courts. In the course of the preparatory work on the Labour Courts Bill the question whether criminal cases in labour matters should be heard by the Labour Courts was considered. But the proposal was not inserted in the Bill, as it seems open to question whether in view of their composition the Labour Courts are fitted to administer criminal justice on behalf of the state; with the further doubt whether the fact of their also hearing criminal cases might not prejudice the confidence on the part of both employers and workers which the members of the Labour Courts should and must enjoy.

As regards employment and placing, an Order of 9 December 1918 of the Federal Office for Economic Demobilisation (R.G.Bl., p. 1421) had already set up a widely ramified system of placing authorities. This system was given final shape and a definite place in Federal legislation by the Employment Exchanges Act of 22 July 1922 and the institution of the Federal Employment Exchange Office (now a section of the Federal Labour Administration in the Federal Ministry of Labour), a technical central office for the organisation of the labour market. These authorities, and the representatives of the economic associations of employers and workers who collaborate with them, have only administrative functions. The Employment Exchanges Act also contains penal provisions (e.g. for failure to provide certain information or to notify the beginning or ending of a strike or lockout), which are enforced in the same way as in the case of workers' protection.

The provisions for unemployment relief are carried out by means of administrative measures.

Lastly, in the field of social insurance, the different branches depend on different *carriers* of insurance (sick funds, mutual benefit societies, the State insurance institutions, special institutions for invalidity and other insurance, the Federal Insurance Institutions for Employees, and the Federal Mining Association), and different insurance *authorities* (the local and central insurance offices, the Federal Insurance Office, and the State insurance offices). The carriers of insurance have to accept or reject claims, and so have certain duties and powers of themselves taking a decision, but their activities are essentially administrative. The insurance authorities have to supervise the administrative work of the carriers of insurance, which gives them the status and functions of administrative authorities; they act as administrative courts, on the contrary, when they have to decide on claims by insured persons submitted to them for legal remedy. A more detailed discussion of these means of enforcing labour laws would however go beyond the limits of the space now available.

The provisions for the enforcement of labour legislation also belong to labour law in the wider sense, and must be included in the future Labour Code. At present, except for the regulations on the judicial authorities with jurisdiction over labour matters, they are occasionally found in the Act containing regulations for that branch of labour law to which they apply.

II. Courts with Jurisdiction in Labour Matters

(1) *Ordinary Courts of Justice.*

As we have already seen, labour legislation has developed into a special branch of law alongside the general civil law, though without as yet embracing all legal relationships within the field of labour law, so that it has to be completed by the general civil law. The situation is similar as regards the administration of labour laws by the courts. The generality of citizens of the state, whatever their occupation, are within the jurisdiction of the " ordinary " courts (*ordentliche Gerichte*), so called in contradistinction to the " special " courts (*Sondergerichte*), to be described farther on. The ordinary courts are mainly governed by two Acts : the Judicature Act (*Gerichtsverfassungsgesetz*) and the Code of Civil Procedure (*Zivilprozessordnung*), which came into force on 1 October 1879 and apply throughout the whole country. The Judicature Act, which has been little modified except as regards criminal justice, determines the structure and composition of the courts for both civil and criminal cases. The Code of Civil Procedure, which has had frequent amendments and additions, some of them of quite recent date, fixes the procedure in civil cases and determines the courts which are competent to hear these cases according to the persons, things, and places concerned. Corresponding regulations for procedure and competence in criminal cases are laid down in the Code of Criminal Procedure (*Strafprozessordnung*), which also came into force throughout the whole country on 1 October 1879, and has recently been considerably modified. As regards civil cases, the Judicature Act abolished the old manorial courts, which still survived here and there for civil and even for criminal matters ; the courts are now all state courts.

In addition to the general courts there are also " special " courts " appointed or allowed " by Federal legislation for dealing with disputes within certain occupational limits. These are the Industrial and Commercial Courts (*Gewerbegerichte*, *Kaufmannsgerichte*) which hear civil disputes concerned with labour law ; they will be described in further detail below. Special courts do not yet exist for all workers and employees, but only for certain groups. Disputes affecting other groups (e.g. agricultural workers and domestic servants) are still within the jurisdiction of the ordinary courts.

The combined activities of the ordinary and the special courts in civil disputes concerned with labour law are described in German

by the inclusive term "labour jurisdiction" (*Arbeitsgerichtsbarkeit*). It is the intention of the Labour Courts Act, which is at present awaiting the decision of Parliament, to create a comprehensive system of special "Labour Courts" (*Arbeitsgerichte*) to deal with all disputes concerned with labour law for all categories of workers and employees.

As has already been pointed out, however, the ordinary civil procedure is still called upon to enforce labour laws; moreover, the future Labour Courts Act will presumably adapt the procedure of the Labour Courts very closely to the corresponding provisions of the Code of Civil Procedure. It therefore seems necessary to give a brief account of the ordinary civil courts and procedure, in so far as they are of importance for disputes concerned with labour law.

In all the Federal States there are Official Courts (*Amtsgerichte*), District Courts (*Landgerichte*), and one or more Upper District Courts (*Oberlandesgerichte*). Each of these courts is an authority of the State in which it is, but their constitution and jurisdiction are determined by Federal legislation (the Judicature Act), their procedure is laid down in the Federal Code of Civil Procedure, and they have to apply both Federal legislation and the laws of their own State. The highest German court of law for the whole country is the Federal Court (*Reichsgericht*) in Leipzig; as its name implies, it is a Federal authority.

The Official Courts are each composed of a single judge ("official judges"); the District Courts are composed partly of a single judge, partly of a bench of judges: the "Civil Chambers" (*Zivilkammern*), and sometimes the special Chambers for Commercial Matters which in case of necessity may be constituted in connection with a District Court; the Upper District Courts and the Federal Court consist of benches of judges, called "Civil Senates" (*Zivilsenate*).

The official judges and the members of the Civil Chambers of the District Courts and the Federal Court are all professional judges "learned in the law" (*rechtsgelehrte Richter*); i.e. persons who are qualified for the office of judge by having studied law at a university, passed the two prescribed examinations, and undergone a preparatory period of practical training. Women are now eligible for appointment as judges on the same conditions as men. The only non-professional judges are the assessors in the Chambers for Commercial Matters and in the Rent Conciliation Offices attached to the Official Courts. In addition, there is a more recent regulation to the effect that in cases heard before the Official Courts, the District Courts, and the Upper District Court as courts

either of first or of second instance, two assessors who are not professional judges are to be added, on the joint request of both parties to the case, when what is called an " arbitration judgement " (*Schiedsurteil*) is to be given.

The Official Courts have jurisdiction in disputes concerning money claims where the amount in dispute does not exceed 500 gold marks, and in certain disputes which call for specially rapid procedure or special familiarity with the relevant local conditions, regardless of the amount in dispute. They deal with disputes between employers and workers relating to the conditions of service or work, and also with the disputes specified in section 4 of the Industrial Courts Act, so far as these arise during the period of service, work, or apprenticeship. The latter group includes disputes relating to any of the following : the continuance of the employment relationship and the obligations (both work and wages) incurred under it ; the delivery and contents of the work-book, certificate, etc. ; the return of certificates, books, papers, tools, security, etc. which have changed hands for reasons connected with the employment ; claims for compensation or for the payment of fines provided in the contract for non-fulfilment of obligations affecting any of the objects enumerated above, or for unlawful or incorrect entries in work-books, certificates, etc., sick-fund books or insurance cards for employees' or invalidity insurance, and similar documents.

The Civil Chambers of the District Courts are courts of both first and second instance. As courts of first instance they have to hear and decide all civil disputes which do not come before the Official Courts. As courts of second instance they hear appeals and complaints against the findings of the Official Courts in civil disputes.

The Civil Senates of the Upper District Courts are courts of second instance only ; their sole function is to decide on appeals against final judgements of the District Courts and on complaints against the other decisions of these Courts.

The Civil Senates of the Federal Court are competent to revise on points of law the final judgements of the Upper District Courts, and also original decisions of the District Courts, if the appellant applies direct to the Federal Court for revision instead of appealing first to the Upper District Court — a form of procedure (the so-called *Sprungrevision*) which has recently been made permissible subject to the consent of the other party to the case. Civil disputes can therefore come before the Federal Court only if they

have been decided in the first instance by a District Court. It follows that a very large number of cases — those concerning money claims where the amount in dispute does not exceed 500 gold marks, and those in which the Official Courts have jurisdiction regardless of the amount in dispute — can never come before the Federal Court at all.

In disputes concerning money claims appeals and applications for revision are further restricted by the fixing of a lower limit for the amount of the claim in each alternative (the so-called *Berufungssumme* or *Revisionssumme*). These amounts were formerly specified in the Act. Under existing regulations they are fixed by the Federal Minister of Justice after consultation of a committee of the Reichstag, in agreement with the Federal Council; at present the amounts are 50 marks for appeals, and 4,000 marks for revision. Findings may be submitted to revision regardless of the amount in dispute either on a point of law or on the ground of the inadmissibility of appeal.

As regards the procedure laid down in the Code of Civil Procedure and the amending and supplementary regulations issued in connection with it, the principles are essentially the same for the District Courts, the Upper District Courts, and the Federal Court: for the Official Courts there are several differences.

In the District Courts and the higher Courts the procedure is based on three principles: that all the proceedings shall be oral (*Mündlichkeit*); that the judgement shall be based solely on the materials tendered by the parties (*Verhandlungsmaxime*); and that the parties themselves are responsible for the direction of the case (*Parteibetrieb*). But all three principles are more or less weakened in practice — the first by the fact that in the oral statements of the parties reference is permitted to documents submitted to the Court: the second by the obligation imposed on the judge who is trying the case to exert every effort to get the parties to state all important facts, produce evidence, and submit pertinent proposals, so as to throw all possible light on the case. As for the third, the practice of direction of the case by the parties (*Parteibetrieb*) has often led to much delay, and even to deliberate postponement, so that in recent years it has been largely replaced even in the higher Courts by the practice of direction by the Court (*Amtsbetrieb*), which was formerly obligatory only in the Official Courts. All these innovations have considerably reduced the divergences between the practice of the higher Courts and that of the Official Courts. The latter has however still kept several special features.

justified and indeed imposed by the (usually) greater simplicity of the law and the facts involved, the smaller amount in dispute, and the greater need for expedition in the cases tried before the Official Courts. One of the most important of these differences is that before the District, Upper District, and Federal Courts the parties must always be represented by a professional lawyer who is recognised by the Court in question (*Anwaltszwang*), while before the Official Courts the parties may conduct their case either in person or by means of any competent representative. Another special feature of Official Court procedure is that service of writs and other documents, except of the judgement itself, is effected not by the parties to the case, but by the Court. The parties do not issue summonses. The date of the hearing is fixed by the Court. The Court may issue instructions which, according to the complaint or other preliminary documents, seem likely to help to throw light on the facts of the case, even before the beginning of the oral proceedings. Lastly, it has recently been made possible to appeal from judgements of the Official Courts in disputes concerning money claims, provided the amount in dispute is not less than a certain prescribed minimum. This minimum is fixed in the same way as the *Revisionssumme*; at present it is 50 gold marks.

Two recently instituted forms of procedure may also be mentioned, as their insertion in the Labour Courts Bill was considered, but was rejected for reasons to be explained later. These are the "amicable procedure" (*Güteverfahren*) and the "arbitration procedure" (*Schiedsurteilverfahren*).

The "amicable procedure" — explicitly so called only for Official Court procedure — must precede the hearing of the complaint, except in one of the exceptional cases specified by the law. The Court discusses the whole situation with the parties, weighing all the circumstances without prejudice, and tries to bring about an amicable settlement. If the parties cannot agree at this stage, then on the application of either party the case is tried by the ordinary procedure, either at once, or at a new date to be fixed immediately.

When a complaint is submitted to a District Court, there is a somewhat similar provision that there must be a preparatory hearing of the case before a single judge of the Court. It is his business to try to settle the dispute amicably; if this cannot be done, he has to obtain full explanations of the whole matter in dispute, if necessary by taking evidence. In disputes concerning

money claims, if both parties agree, he can deliver judgement in the place of the full Court.

The " arbitration procedure " is intended to expedite and simplify the procedure before the Official, District, and Upper District Courts. It is applicable only on the request of both parties and is marked by great freedom as to form, the aim being to ensure the greatest possible flexibility and speed. The Court — the Court of first or second instance which would in any case have jurisdiction in the dispute — determines its procedure at its own discretion ; the only restriction is that representation by counsel is compulsory except in the Official Courts. Disputes concerning money claims which are within the jurisdiction of the Official Courts must be heard and decided by the arbitration procedure if the amount in dispute does not exceed 50 gold marks at the moment the complaint is submitted, whether the parties propose it or not. In these cases the addition to the bench of assessors who are not professional judges cannot be demanded.

(2) *Special Courts with Jurisdiction in Labour Matters.*

Apart from the proposed Labour Courts, to be described in the next section of the article, there exist several kinds of Special Court for dealing with disputes in labour matters. These are the Industrial and Commercial Courts (*Gewerbegerichten*, *Kaufmannsgerichten*), the Mining Industrial Courts (*Berggewerbegericht*), the Guilds (*Innungen*), and the Guild Arbitration Courts (*Innungsschiedsgerichte*). They have a definite jurisdiction and procedure of their own, even though the latter is modelled on and closely resembles the civil procedure of the ordinary courts. But their jurisdiction extends only to certain specified groups of persons and to cases of specified kinds. Disputes outside either of these limits are up to the present within the jurisdiction of the ordinary courts with their ordinary rules of procedure.

The Industrial Courts owe their origin to the circumstance that with the growth in the industrial working population the need was increasingly felt for some kind of tribunal to deal with disputes between employers and workers which should have the advantage of speed and should enjoy the confidence of both parties. The guilds had primitive arrangements of this kind towards the end of the Middle Ages. But the real prototype of the Industrial Courts was to be found in the *conseils de prud'hommes*, which had been gradually set up in numerous branches of industry in France from the beginning of the nineteenth century onwards. A different

course had been pursued in Germany by the Industrial Code of 21 June 1869 for the North German Federation, and the earlier Prussian General Industrial Code of 17 January 1845. According to these laws the communal authorities could either themselves take decisions in petty disputes between industrial workers and their employers, or could appoint arbitration courts consisting of equal numbers of employers and of workers for this purpose. Only comparatively few towns, however, had made use of these powers, echos of which are still to be found in the Industrial Courts Act. This Act was promulgated on 29 July 1890 (R.G. Bl., p. 141) and came into force on 1 April 1891. It was considerably modified by an amending Act of 30 June 1901 (R.G.Bl., p. 249), and the amended text was re-issued under date of 29 September 1901 (R.G.Bl., p. 353); separate points were subsequently further modified by various Acts.

According to this Act an Industrial Court may be set up by means of a by-law by a commune, or by an association of communes for its district; a Court must be set up if the commune had more than 20,000 inhabitants at the last Census. On the application of the employers or workers concerned the Government of a Federal State may order a Court to be set up. At present there are 562 Industrial Courts in Germany. They are distributed over all parts of the country, but they do not by any means cover it; in fact, except for some individual States, there are everywhere larger or smaller areas which are not within the jurisdiction of any Industrial Court. This is especially so in the predominantly agricultural districts, as land workers are not within the scope of the Act, so that an Industrial Court would have little or nothing to do in districts where agriculture is almost the only industry. For similar reasons the Courts are but thinly scattered in other regions where there is little ordinary industry. In districts not within the jurisdiction of an Industrial Court disputes between industrial workers and their employers must be brought before the ordinary courts; a similar statement holds for the Commercial Courts, to be described below.

While the Industrial Courts are communal institutions, the justice they administer is state justice. They have the legal nature of courts of law, take the place of the ordinary courts for the disputes assigned to their jurisdiction, and take legal decisions as do the ordinary courts. Their special composition and specific procedure are intended only to ensure the expert and rapid settlement of disputes. Their creation, organisation, jurisdiction, and

procedure are all based on Federal legislation, the Industrial Courts Act, which contains all these regulations, being a Federal Act. It follows that they are fundamentally the same throughout the country. Like the ordinary courts, they have to apply both Federal law (in particular, besides the provisions of the Industrial Courts Act itself, those of the Civil Code and of Federal labour legislation) and State law, i.e. laws and orders of the separate Federal States, in so far as these have force alongside Federal law.

Geographically, a dispute is within the jurisdiction of that Industrial Court whose district includes either the place where the obligation in dispute should be fulfilled, or the industrial premises of the employer, or the residence of both parties. If several Courts are competent, the plaintiff has the right to choose between them. If a dispute is geographically within the jurisdiction of an Industrial Court it is thereby excluded from the jurisdiction of all ordinary courts.

As regards the persons concerned in disputes, the personal competence of the Industrial Courts extends to employers and workers in the sense of the Industrial Courts Act. The term " workers " covers those journeymen, assistants, factory workers, and apprentices to whom Title VIII of the Industrial Code applies, and also works officials, foremen, and higher technical employees whose yearly earnings do not exceed the result of multiplying the basic rate of 5,000 marks by the Federal weekly cost-of-living index number published in the previous week (rounded off to the next lowest multiple of 10,000).

The consequence of limiting the definition of the term " workers " by this reference to the Industrial Code is that workers and employees who are not covered by the Code are excluded from the benefit of the Industrial Courts. These are in the first place all persons employed in agriculture and forestry, fisheries, and public ferry-boat undertakings, on sea-going vessels, in industrial undertakings belonging to railways, and in domestic service. According to decisions of the Federal Court the following are also excluded from the application of the Industrial Code and therefore of the Industrial Courts Act : office staff of lawyers, notaries, bailiffs, owners of undertakings concerned with emigration and emigration agents, and owners of insurance undertakings ; employees of unadmitted attorneys (*Rechtskonsulenten*) and insurance agents, on the contrary, are included. Other excluded categories are persons directly or indirectly concerned in medical occupations, such as doctors' and dentists' assistants, and nursing staff in hospitals,

but not domestic staff in a nursing home conducted for profit, nor dentists' technical assistants. Similar distinctions are drawn in the artistic professions, according as the work done is of a higher kind (e.g. an operatic singer in an important theatre), or simpler and not really artistic, or merely mechanical (e.g. lower-grade musicians, supernumeraries, stage workers, dressers, etc.). The Industrial Courts Act itself explicitly states that its provisions are not applicable to employees and apprentices in commercial undertakings and chemists' shops, or to workers employed in industrial undertakings belonging to the Army or the Navy.

The term " employers " in the sense of the Industrial Courts Act covers all independent heads of businesses who regularly employ at least one worker throughout the year or at certain periods. The jurisdiction of the Industrial Courts as a rule extends also to industrial disputes between persons carrying on home industries or home workers and their employers, and those between persons working for the same employer, e.g. disputes arising out of a so-called " group agreement " (*Gruppenakkord*). It in no case extends to disputes between two employers, or between an employer and a third party, or between two workers employed by different employers, or between a worker and a third party.

As regards the subject-matter of disputes, the material competence of the Industrial Courts is primarily determined by the stipulation in the Act that they can deal only with " industrial disputes " (*gewerbliche Streitigkeiten*). According to the interpretation given in judicial decisions and literature, this term covers disputes arising out of and in connection with an industrial undertaking. In a further provision (section 4) the Act enumerates those industrial disputes in which the Industrial Courts have jurisdiction, regardless of the amount in dispute. These include, first, those disputes which, as shown above, are within the jurisdiction of the official Courts, as regards their subject-matter, regardless of the amount in dispute ; it is to be noted that in disputes of this kind it follows from the explanation given above as to geographical limits of competence that the jurisdiction of the official Courts is effective only if there is no official Court for the locality of the dispute. As regards subject-matter, the Act limits the jurisdiction of the Official Courts only by specifying that the disputes must have " arisen during the period of the relationship of service, work, or apprenticeship " ; but the Industrial Courts have also jurisdiction in disputes concerning the beginning or ending of the employment relationship, as well as in disputes of the specified character which

arise before the beginning or after the ending of the relationship of service, etc. Claims arising out of an agreement imposing restrictions on the industrial activity of a worker for the period after the ending of the employment relationship (the so-called " competition clause ") now come before the Industrial Courts, however large the amount in dispute may be.

These various regulations define the material competence of the Industrial Courts in relation to other tribunals, especially the ordinary courts; the limits are exclusive and exhaustive. With reference to special courts an extensive interpretation is not permissible. It follows, in particular, that claims for compensation other than those specified in section 4 of the Industrial Courts Act will not lie before an Industrial Court; for instance, claims by a worker for damages on account of bodily injury or of non-observance of the regulations of the Industrial Code and the Civil Code for the protection of the workers.

It follows from these limitations on the personal and material competence of the Industrial Courts that they have no jurisdiction in disputes arising out of collective agreements. In suits concerned with legal relationships in private law arising out of a collective agreement the parties at law are the contracting parties of the collective agreement: on the side of the workers one or more workers' organisations, which are not within the jurisdiction of the Industrial Courts; and these Courts can take cognisance only of disputes arising out of a specific individual employment relationship, with which a collective agreement does not concern itself. Works agreements cannot give rise to civil disputes, as in spite of the agreement the sole basis of their effectiveness is provided by public law in relation to the organisation of the undertaking; they are therefore also outside the jurisdiction of the Industrial Courts.

The material competence of the Industrial and also of the Commercial Courts has recently been extended. The interest of this extension is due not so much to the number or importance of the matters added to their jurisdiction, but rather to the resulting changes in methods of organisation and to the aims in view, for which reason it calls for further examination here.

The Conciliation Order of 30 October 1923 transferred to the competence of these special courts a number of cases which had formerly been within the competence of the Conciliation Committees set up under the National Service Act of 5 December 1916 (R.G.Bl., p. 1333), either alone, or in addition to or provisionally

after other bodies (district economic councils, arbitration institutions set up by agreement, etc.). These cases were as follows :

(1) disputes arising out of the Works Councils Act, in particular those over alleged departure from the principles agreed upon between the council of wage-earning or of salaried employees (or the works council) and the employer as to the engagement of workers and employees, or over the dismissal of a worker or employee ;

(2) disputes arising out of the Provisional Agricultural Labour Code of 24 January 1919, in particular those over the cash value of agreed payments in kind to be made by the employer to a worker, such as housing and use of land, the division of the produce of the land allotted to the worker for his own use if his employment terminates before the date originally fixed, and the suitability of the wage and the work expected in the case of war-disabled men and other workers of lower working capacity ;

(3) disputes arising out of the Federal War Pensions Act of 30 June 1923 (R.G.Bl., I, p. 523), over alleged violation of the rule that pensions of war-disabled men and of widows and orphans of deceased ex-service men must not be taken into account in calculating wages ;

(4) a number of cases relating to workers' representative bodies under the Works Councils Act, in which differences of opinion may arise between the employer and the workers and employees or their representative bodies within the undertaking.

In cases belonging to any of the first three groups, we have either civil disputes or disputes which at least closely resemble them. Cases in the fourth group, on the contrary, as regards their treatment by the competent authorities, have most in common with cases within the domain of the so-called " voluntary " administration of justice (questions of guardianship, inheritance, etc.), which are half-way between legal disputes and administrative matters. Accordingly all these cases belong more to the sphere of the administration of justice than to that of the adjustment of disputes ; and this view is further strengthened if the original idea that the task of the conciliation authorities was to collaborate in the settlement of labour disputes, is replaced by the newer concept, embodied in the Conciliation Order of 30 October 1923, that their task is to provide official help towards the conclusion of collective agreements (collective contracts and works agreements).

If in spite of this these cases were placed within the competence of the Conciliation Committees by the Works Councils Act, the

Provisional Agricultural Labour Code, and the Federal War Pensions Act, this decision is easily accounted for in the light of that earlier conception of the task of these Committees which was still prevalent when these Acts were passed, and naturally led to the acceptance of some such arrangement. In any case it it was even then only a temporary expedient. For to assign these cases to the ordinary courts would have been inadmissible, as this would have been a violation of the principle of special courts for labour disputes, and would have run counter to the efforts then being made to introduce a comprehensive system of courts with jurisdiction in labour matters. From their nature and the scope of their tasks, the natural authorities to call in would have been the Industrial and Commercial Courts; but on account of the numerous deficiencies in the field of their competence they were not considered suitable. In spite of this undeniable misgiving, however, the Conciliation Order of 30 October 1923 preferred to assign the four groups of cases in question to the Industrial and Commercial Courts, partly because their treatment of the Conciliation Committees had proved a failure. But a further reason was the wish to renew the distinction formerly drawn between the administration of justice and the adjustment of disputes in labour matters, which had been partly obliterated by legislation, and so to clear the ground in this direction for the future Labour Courts Act and the comprehensive Conciliation Order which had also not yet become law.

At the same time there was a temporary difficulty to be met, namely, the impossibility of instituting a uniform jurisdictional system in view of the incompleteness of the Industrial and Commercial Courts. In districts where there was no Industrial or Commercial Court, the cases in question were left to the Conciliation Committees. But since they were to deal with these matters not as conciliation authorities but as labour courts, a special organisation was set up in them by the creation of Labour Court Chambers (*arbeitsgerichtliche Kammern*), consisting of an impartial chairman and one representative each of the employers and of the workers. Special regulations for the procedure of these Chambers were issued in the Administrative Order of 10 December 1923 (R.G.Bl., I, p. 1191) of the Federal Minister of Labour. The regulations also govern the procedure of the Industrial and Commercial Courts when dealing with the specified cases. It seemed unnecessary, however, to set up any special organisation within these Courts, in view of their composition and special

arrangements; the Conciliation Order merely said that for this new sphere of their activities the Courts should " be deemed to be labour courts ". Accordingly — at least until the Labour Courts Act becomes law — the term " labour courts " is for the time being taken to mean the Industrial and Commercial Courts, when dealing with the cases enumerated above, and the Labour Court Chambers of the Conciliation Committees. The competence of all these (provisional) labour courts is strictly defined and cannot be modified by agreement between the parties. The decisions of the labour courts are final; no appeal or complaint against them in any of the specified cases is allowed.

Each Industrial Court consists of a chairman and at least one vice-chairman, and the necessary number of assessors (at least four); half chosen from the employers and half from the workers. The chairman and vice-chairman may not be either employers or workers, and must be at least 25 years old; no other qualifications are prescribed for them. They are appointed for at least one year either by the magistrate, or if none exists or the local by-laws so prescribe, by the municipal council, or in the case of an association of communes by its representative council. The assessors are elected by direct and secret ballot, on the principle of proportional representation; the employers' and workers' representatives are elected by the employers and workers respectively. The right of voting and of standing for election is confined to persons (including women) who are either employers or workers in the sense of the Industrial Courts Act, and are qualified to hold the office of unpaid magistrate (*Schöffe*) according to the Judicature Act. Electors must be at least 20 years old and must have either their residence or their occupation in the district covered by the Industrial Court. At the date of the election the assessors, like the chairman and vice-chairman, must be at least 25 years old. More detailed instructions as to the election of the assessors and the relative procedure are laid down in the by-laws of the Court; for instance, as to the period of office of the assessors, within the limits prescribed by the Act (minimum one year, maximum six years). Re-election is allowed. The office of assessor is honorary; but travelling expenses are reimbursed and an allowance is paid for loss of time.

Except when otherwise provided by the Act, the Industrial Court sits and takes decisions as a bench consisting of a chairman (or vice-chairman) and two assessors — one employer and one worker. The procedure is in principle the same as that for civil

disputes in the Official Courts, as prescribed in the Code of Civil Procedure. Certain divergences from these rules were provided for, so as to simplify and accelerate the procedure in the Industrial Courts, in harmony with the nature of the disputes to be dealt with and the needs of the parties; but these divergences have lost much of their significance since numerous recent amendments to the Code of Civil Procedure have also modified the Official Court procedure in the same direction and so brought it into much closer agreement with the Industrial Court procedure. In particular, in both the direction of the case is now almost entirely withdrawn from the parties and transferred to the Court; in addition the principle that the case is decided on the evidence tendered by the parties (*Verhandlungsmaxime*) has been largely replaced by the principle of judicial examination (*Untersuchungsmaxime*), the bridge being the duty imposed on the judge of using all his efforts to elucidate the affair.

Of the differences still remaining between the two procedures the following are the most important.

(1) In the Industrial and Commercial Courts expert assessors chosen from the employers and workers (industrial or commercial as the case may be) regularly take part in the proceedings; the only exception to their presence is in a preparatory hearing of the case, in which compromise, withdrawal of the complaint, and renunciation or recognition of the amount in dispute, but nothing else, may be discussed and perhaps lead to a settlement of the dispute. In the Official Courts, on the contrary, hearing before a single judge is the rule, and the arbitration procedure referred to above is the only circumstance enabling assessors who are not judges to be added. In the latter case while the assessors are nominated by the parties to the dispute, they need not themselves be employers or workers and do not therefore offer any guarantee of the possession of expert knowledge of the situation. In addition, the appointment of even these lay assessors is conditional on joint application by both parties, and is not allowed in disputes concerning money claims of small value.

(2) Lawyers, and persons (e.g. unadmitted attorneys) who transact business before the Courts as a regular profession, are not allowed to represent or advise the parties before the Industrial Courts. Representatives of associations of employers or workers, in particular trade union officials, are however allowed to act, provided that it is on behalf of members of their own association and that they do not appear before the Court for payment on

behalf of any one other than these members or the association itself. In the Official Courts, on the contrary, the parties to the dispute may act for themselves or employ the services of any competent person either to represent or to advise them.

The recent additions to the methods authorised by the Code of Civil Procedure — the " amicable procedure " and the " arbitration procedure " — are available without further legislative action for use in the Industrial Courts, as for the procedure in these Courts, according to the Industrial Courts Act, the regulations in the Code of Civil Procedure for the Official Courts are to be applied *mutatis mutandis*. In any case the " amicable procedure " did in fact already exist for the Industrial Courts in this sense that from the outset the Industrial Courts Act attached great value to the amicable settlement of the dispute ; it provided for this purpose that before the formal hearing of the case the Court should do all in its power to reach this result, and that it could renew the attempt at mediation at every stage of the proceedings, and at the end of the hearing must even repeat it in the presence of the parties. A large number of disputes are always settled in this way in the Industrial and Commercial Courts.

An appeal from final decisions of the Industrial Courts will lie to the District Court, but only if the amount in dispute exceeds a certain sum. By a recent order this sum is the result of multiplying the basic sum of 300 marks by the Federal weekly cost-of-living index number published in the preceding week (rounded off to the next lowest multiple of 10,000). As noted above, appeals are forbidden only in cases in which an Industrial Court, by the provisions of the Conciliation Order of 30 October 1923, is acting as a " labour court ". The procedure in the District Courts for appeals from decisions of the Industrial Courts is governed by the rules laid down in the Code of Civil Procedure for appeals submitted to them from decisions of the ordinary courts. Here too the parties are obliged to be represented by counsel. Process of execution in accordance with the provisions of the Code of Civil Procedure follows final decisions of the Industrial Courts, whether valid final (*rechtskräftige*) judgements or judgements declared provisionally executory, and also compromises reached before these Courts.

For disputes between employers and employed in mines, salt works, ore-dressing works, and quarries and excavations worked underground, special Mining Industrial Courts (*Berggewerbegerichte*) have been set up in several States by the State Government, under

the powers granted by the Industrial Courts Act; at present there are nine of these. The provisions of the Industrial Courts Act apply to these Courts and their activities, with some few necessary modifications.

According to the Industrial Code the guilds (*Innungen*) have themselves to decide disputes of the kind specified in section 4 of the Industrial Courts Act between members of the guilds and their apprentices. They may also set up Guild Arbitration Courts (*Innungschiedsgerichte*) to deal with such disputes between members and their journeymen, assistants, or workers; more detailed regulations for the composition of these Courts (corresponding to those for the Industrial Courts) and their procedure are contained in the Commercial Code. This arrangement has been explicitly maintained in force by the Industrial Courts Act, which further states that the competence of a guild or Guild Arbitration Court takes precedence of that of the Industrial Court, either existing or to be set up in the future for the district of the guild.

The Commercial Courts Act of 6 July 1904 (R.G.Bl., p. 266), which was modelled on the Industrial Courts Act and borrowed many of its provisions, set up a system of special courts called " Commercial Courts " (*Kaufmannsgerichte*) to deal with " disputes arising out of the conditions of service or remuneration between merchants on the one hand and commercial employees or apprentices on the other ". The Commercial Courts, like the Industrial Courts, are independent courts, which administer justice on behalf of the State. As a rule, however, they are linked up with the Industrial Courts by having the same chairman and vice-chairman, and by sharing office staff and accommodation, etc. Exceptionally a Commercial Court may be set up in a district where there is no Industrial Court, or for special reasons may be kept quite distinct from the Industrial Court. There are at present altogether 320 Commercial Courts.

The regulations for the Commercial Courts are similar to those for the Industrial Courts (method of setting up the Courts and authorities competent for this, obligation to set up a court in communes with more than 20,000 inhabitants, payment of expenses of institution and of maintenance, geographical limits of competence of the Courts). As regards their personal competence, it is to be noted that the Act has not explained the terms " merchant " (*Kaufmann*, *Kaufleute*) " commercial employee " (*Handlungsgehilfe*), and " commercial apprentice " (*Handlungslehrling*) used in defining the jurisdiction of the Courts. The persons covered

by these terms must therefore be determined by reference to the Commercial Code. There exists a comprehensive series of judicial decisions, emanating from the former Federal Upper Commercial Court, the Federal Court, and various Upper District Courts, which determine the applicability of one or other of these terms to numerous individual cases. The only general limitation in the Act is that commercial employees whose wage or salary exceeds a certain sum — at present fixed in the same way as the limit under the Industrial Courts Act for works officials, foremen, etc. — and employees and apprentices in chemists' shops are excluded from its effects. It follows that these persons are also ineligible as assessors in Commercial Courts and cannot take part in the election of assessors.

There are some further limitations in the Act with regard to the election of assessors. Candidates must be merchants who employ at least one employee or apprentice regularly throughout the year or at certain times of year. Voters must carry on a business or be employed in the district of the Court. For the chairman and vice-chairman it is not merely specified — to correspond to the Industrial Courts Act — that they must be neither merchants nor employees; but there is the further stipulation that (apart from exceptions which may be authorised by the higher administrative authorities) only such persons may be elected as are qualified for appointment as judge or as a higher administrative official.

The material competence of the Commercial Courts is defined in general terms in section 1 of the Act, and further in section 5 by an enumeration of the disputes that are within the competence of the Courts regardless of the amount in dispute. This list is almost word for word the same as that in section 4 of the Industrial Courts Act, with the substitution of " service or apprenticeship " for " work ", and " commercial employees or apprentices " for " workers ". In other points, too, apart from these and other similar modifications due to the difference in the persons covered, the Commercial Courts Act has either followed the provisions of the Industrial Courts Act or merely referred to these. This is so in particular for the composition and membership of the Courts, the election of assessors, the admission of women as assessors or electors for them, the minimum age limits of members of the Courts and of electors, and procedure, including the provisions as to the persons who are allowed to appear in Court and to represent or advise the parties and the admissibility of appeal to the

District Court (limited, as in the Industrial Courts Act, to cases where the amount in dispute exceeds a sum specified in the Act). The fees are also fixed on the same scale for both kinds of Court; they are considerably lower than in the Official Courts for a dispute concerning a claim for the same amount. The fees for appeals are in general to be fixed on the same scale as for appeals from the ordinary courts to a District Court. The District Courts are the final courts of appeal from both the Industrial and the Commercial Courts; the result of this is that it has been impossible to develop a uniform body of judicial precedents in the fields covered by these Courts.

(To be continued.)

Credit Co-operation as Adapted to the Needs of the Worker

by

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Reference has been made on many occasions to the fact that the practice of selling on credit is a menace both to the free disposal of wages and to the independence and dignity of the wage earner. Consumers' co-operative societies have performed a task of both educational and liberative value in this respect, by encouraging among their members the principles of cash purchase, and in various ways organising and assisting their efforts to save. A tendency — now rapidly spreading both in the United States and in some European countries — to stimulate production by the encouragement of sales on the instalment system, with various other " advantages ", constitutes a new and grave danger to the worker earning a small or moderate wage. Special consumers' credit banks have been established ; these, however, may be criticised as resulting in raising the price of articles purchased with their assistance (interest on capital invested, insurance of risks, general expenses), and moreover it may be said that their object is to increase the temptation to purchase, which may in turn result in the worker getting into debt and virtual thraldom. The aim of sound credit, in so far as it may be considered indispensable, should be, not to tempt the consumer to make unnecessary purchases by offering facilities, but to make possible some necessary purchase with a view to which he has already made endeavours to save. Moreover, credit will be characterised by sincerity if it is organised, not by the sellers or on their behalf, but by the purchasers — for their own purposes and under their own control. The aim of the following article is to show how sound credit has been organised on co-operative lines and in a form adapted to the needs of the working classes. It also demonstrates the results of this system, which, says Mr. Bergengren, " has been described as the instalment plan in reverse — saving by instalments to make cash buying possible ".

Before we can discuss " credit co-operation " we must give some thought to the word " credit ". What is " credit " ? How is the right of the individual to credit determined ? If such right

exists within the individual, what credit resources are available to him ? What price must be paid for credit ? What regulates the price ? What is " usury " ? How does " co-operative credit " differ from any other sort of credit ? What, particularly, is the credit problem of the worker ? Of what significance to the worker is co-operative as distinguished from any other type of credit accommodation ? These are but a few of the questions which are essentially associated with any general discussion of the subject in hand. Obviously we are concerned with many problems and, obviously again, each of these problems may be discussed within strict limitations and only as it bears directly on the primary object of this study.

Credit

" Credit " is defined by Myron T. Herrick in his book on rural credit[1] as " that confidence reposed in a person which enables him to obtain from another the temporary use of a thing of value ". The " thing of value " may be money ; it may be a commodity ; it may be a service. In each case the basis of the accommodation is the conviction on the part of the individual extending credit that the recipient of credit will pay at some subsequent time for the " thing of value " received and for its use. Franklin Winton Ryan points out in a very recent and authoritative book on usury[2] that " in primitive tribal society where the productive employment of capital was practically unknown the prohibition of interest [for the use of money] in many instances may have been justified ". It is important, however, to have in mind that this discussion has nothing to do with primitive society. There are agencies which extend money credits without charging interest. Such a transaction has in it the element of charity. The use of money has value. One man, for example, invests his money in a garage ; at the end of the year he finds that he has netted a profit of 20 per cent. He is credited with business acumen. His neighbour invests an equal amount of money in a small-loans business and makes a net profit of less than 20 per cent. by charging 36 per cent. on the loans which he negotiates. Mostly because of historical prejudice and a failure on the part of the general public to understand

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[1] Myron T. Herrick and F. Ingalls : *Rural Credit — Land and Co-operative*, p. 3. New York, Appleton, 1916.

[2] Franklin Winton Ryan : *Usury and Usury Laws*, p. 180. Houghton Mifflin, 1924.

this business of selling the use of money, he may find himself unjustly stigmatised a " usurer ". Because money has value, to extend a loan of money without charging interest is a gratuity. We are concerned, therefore, with the extension of credit for which a charge is made just as a charge is made for the sale or use of any other commodity.

Credit may be extended because the lender has sufficient faith that the borrower will pay, so that the credit extension is based exclusively on the character of the borrower, or rather on the character diagnosis of the recipient of credit made by the individual granting it. It becomes obvious, therefore, that the capacity to make correct credit diagnosis — to determine with accuracy in the individual case the capacity of the applicant for credit to meet his credit obligations — is the most important element in the transaction from the viewpoint of the credit grantor. Therefore, in theory at least, the individual or committee of individuals specifically skilled in the matter of determining credit would normally be expected to make a more accurate determination of the extent of the credit capacity of the individual under examination than would, for example, the storekeeper whose primary business is the merchandising of other commodities than money.

Credit may also be extended on the basis of a pledge of goods, a mortgage of real estate, the guaranty of others that the obligation of the individual seeking credit will be met, or by the assignment of a thing of value. It would seem, therefore, that the development within the individual of the capacity to tender security is an element in the creation of his capacity to demand and readily obtain credit.

In the last analysis, however, whatever other security may be taken, the will of the credit grantee to meet his obligations to the credit grantor is the most important factor in determining whether or not credit should be extended to him. At the time of a strike by the police of the City of Boston, several of them had loans with the Boston Municipal Employees' Credit Union. These men were all permanently discharged. Many of them had great difficulty in obtaining other employment. One borrower within this group left Boston and his loan was written off as a loss. Two years later he obtained work on a ranch in Wyoming (2,000 miles away) and began to repay his loan by mail, and finally completed his payments. He had the will to meet his obligations.

Credits may be extended for an infinite variety of purposes. According to their purpose credits are generally classified as either

" consumptive " or " productive "[1]. In the one case the ultimate result of the credit extension is to decrease the wealth of the borrower; in the other there must be a fair presumption that the credit extension will ultimately increase the wealth of the borrower. We have to do with both of these; but, in a very general way, we are here concerned only with such credit extension as may fairly be classified as " provident ", meaning that the purpose of the credit extension shall, to the best of our sometimes very faulty human judgment, promise to be of immediate or ultimate benefit to the borrower. In credit unions it is the practice to think of loans as either " remedial " in character or as " constructive ". The " remedial " loan is designed to relieve or assist the borrower to meet some emergency incidental to the day-by-day process of living; the " constructive " loan is designed to help the borrower to improve his material circumstances. Our discussion of " co-operative credit " therefore is limited (1) to money credits and (2) to money credit extended not only on the basis of (*a*) the probability of repayment but also (*b*) on the basis of a purpose to which the loan is to be applied which may fairly be interpreted as " provident ".

The Need for Short-Term Credit

Could we imagine an economic state so evenly balanced that the individual was always possessed of sufficient cash available to meet the requirements of himself and those dependent on him, there would be no serious credit problem; or were the banking system so constituted that it could, with safety and without loss to the bank, extend credit to the multitude of small borrowers who now have recourse to the private lenders, the credit problem of the masses of the people would be nearer solution. We deal, however, with a condition which calls for the creation of credit for those who are without the normal credit resources which make it possible to secure, when needed, credit accommodation at a rate of interest which is associated in the public mind with the rate prevailing in banks making commercial loans. Obviously, everyone should be entitled to credit who has the capacity and the will to meet any credit obligation into which he may enter. The problem of those without such capacity is not a credit problem because the extension of credit is based on this determination of the capacity to repay.

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[1] Ryan: *op. cit.*, p. 9.

the storekeeper who extends credit to the individual who is without the capacity and the will to pay subsequently for the goods in hand has made an improper credit diagnosis. No co-operative credit society could relieve him from the results of his miscalculation by extending a loan to his delinquent customer. The credit society lends money; it does not give away money.

We think of banks as institutions having to do with saving and with credit. The *United States Investor*, a very conservative magazine published in the interests of banks and banking, said in February 1925: "With all its great progress along some lines, banking has come to a dead end along one very important line.... The credit side of banks has not been carried to the worker.... We have not learned as yet how to lend on the character of one who is an employee[1]." Reliable statistics are not available as to the proportion of the people who enjoy bank credit. It has been variously estimated at from 7 to 15 per cent.; the most optimistic figures leave the bulk of the population without normal bank credit facilities. Mr. Arthur H. Ham, then Director of the Division of Remedial Loans of the Russell Sage Foundation of New York City, in an address delivered in 1911, said: "My investigation shows with fair conclusiveness that in every city or town of more than 30,000 population one usurer may be found to every five thousand, and approximately five borrowers to every hundred of the population." It will be recalled that the enquiry into the money-lending evil in Liverpool, conducted by the Social and Industrial Reform Committee of the Liverpool Women Citizens' Association in 1924, disclosed the fact that "there are in Liverpool and Birkenhead 1,380 registered money lenders". The report cites cases involving interest rates ranging from 22 to 1,300 per cent. The Russell Sage Foundation, long authoritatively interested in this subject, made an investigation in the spring of 1926 as to usury as practised through the medium of salary purchasing[1] at

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[1] *United States Investor*, 21 Feb. 1925. Boston, Baltimore, and Washington, Frank P. Bennett.

[1] "Salary purchasing" is described in a report prepared for the Russell Sage Foundation by Leon Henderson, Director of the Division of Remedial Loans of the Foundation, as follows: "A so-called sale of wages is a simple transaction.... The would-be borrower, calling at a salary-buying loan shark office, signs both parts of a two-part perforated sheet, one part of which is headed "Application to Sell Account for Wages or Salary" and the other part of which is a standard bill of sale. On the bottom of the bill of sale the borrower is required to write: "This is a sale, not a loan." Only those who have wages already earned may secure such a loan. The bill of sale calls for delivery of the wages sold, plus the lender's discount, at pay-day. The date line is left blank. Should the borrower

exorbitant interest rates. This report shows that the prevailing practice of salary buying by lenders costs the wage worker in some instances from 260 to 3,600 per cent.; that, for example, four operators with headquarters in one of the Southern American cities control 160 small-loan offices carrying on this type of business within a single State. Obviously this condition could not exist were credit resources at legitimate rates of interest available for the masses of the people.

Banks as at present constituted cannot fairly be expected to carry on a small-loan business. The reasons are more or less self-evident. The overhead or operating cost on this sort of business would be excessive. Any one of a hundred personal loans of this description of one hundred dollars each would require more investigation, more book-keeping, and more follow-up than a single loan of ten thousand dollars to a customer of the bank carried on in the usual course of its commercial business. Further, the bank is not equipped to diagnose this type of credit correctly. As will be later indicated herein this sort of small-loan business requires a technique, a sort of skill and understanding of borrowers, which cannot be readily supplied by the typical commercial bank. The relationship of lender and borrower in this type of business should be, as nearly as possible, a personal relationship; the bank is too remote — not only in its point of view but in its traditions, habits, even in its physical equipment for doing business, to handle this type of credit. It is not geared down to serve the small borrower. It is conceivable that eventually the banks will appreciate this obvious defect in the banking business and, possibly, undertake the promotion of co-operative credit societies as a normal supplement to the banking system.

There are various agencies which deal with the small-loan problem. Some of them are quasi-philanthropic, within which general category may be listed the remedial loan societies which will be discussed in a separate paragraph. Next in order are the private lenders, operating either (*a*) in accordance with the provisions of a regulatory law, or (*b*) as " free-booters " who carry on their business in more or less open defiance of all laws, and within which

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fail to appear on pay-day and deliver the amount promised, the shark fills in the current date and notifies the employer, asking that the employee's next wages be delivered direct to him. The rate is never less than 260 per cent. per annum, and is usually higher.

general classification is to be found the type of lender who has come commonly to be known in the United States as the " loan shark ", the true usurer. Finally, we leave the small-loan field as covered by those who, in one guise or another, carry on a small-loan business at private profit to consider co-operative credit and its potential value to the worker as the ultimate solution of the small-loan problem. Before making an analysis of these various agencies, let us make some examination of usury.

Usury and Legitimate Rates

Usury is a Result. It is the result of a combination of two circumstances — a need of credit, generally acute, coupled with a breakdown of credit facilities at normal rates of interest. Ryan[1] supplies us with two definitions of usury : (1) legal usury, or taking more interest than the law allows, and (2) moral usury, or the practice of exacting a greater interest than is reasonable at the time the loan is made, by taking advantage of the necessitous condition or inexperience of the borrower. We are concerned primarily with moral usury. Bentham[2] says : " No man of ripe years and of sound mind, acting freely and with his eyes open, ought to be hindered, with a view to his advantage, from making such bargain in the way of obtaining money as he thinks fit. " This definition loses its significance when it is taken into account that the needs of the borrower quite generally deprive him of all freedom of action. F. W. Taussig[3] perceives this fact when, discussing pawnbrokers, he writes : " The borrowers are usually in immediate need, often timid, ignorant and anxious for privacy. They are likely to accept hurriedly such terms as are offered at the first place where application is made. " Joel D. Hunter, General Superintendent of the United Charities of Chicago, concludes, as the result of an investigation of salary purchasing by lenders in Chicago conducted in the early months of 1926, that " there are some cases where the rate amounts to almost 40 per cent. a month. . . . These companies rely almost entirely on the fear existing in the minds of the wage workers who are in their clutches. " The borrower goes to the lender because he needs credit and the private lender is his only recourse. The rate in such case is determined by the greed of the lender unless the lender is operating in conformity with some regu-

[1] Ryan : *op. cit.*, chap. II.
[2] Bentham : *Letters in Defence of Usury.*
[3] F. W. Taussig : *Principles of Economics*, Vol. II, p. 35.

latory law. " In the field of consumers' loans or loans for consumptive purposes, " writes Mr. Ryan[1], " where the borrowers are usually ignorant and in immediate need, they are likely to be willing to accept any terms the lenders may ask. In this case there is such a glaring discrepancy in the bargaining positions of the parties, that some sort of social control is needed to prevent the lender from taking undue advantage of the borrower. "

The predisposition to consider every rate in excess of the traditional 6 per cent. as usurious has done much to becloud any rational discussion of this general subject. If, for example, it costs the lender 8 per cent. to extend a small-loan accommodation and he charges 14 per cent., realising a net 6 per cent. profit, obviously the transaction is not usurious. Usury is the practice of charging a rate of interest which — all of the circumstances of the given case taken into careful consideration — is inequitable. Where the usurer operates, he fills an economic need, for he sells credit to a borrower who needs credit and cannot buy it elsewhere. It is because of that fact that anti-usury legislation which fails to take into account the need of the borrower for a source of credit inevitably fails. Usury can be eliminated only by the creation of a source of credit at legitimate rates of interest for the individual seeking and deserving credit who, lacking normal credit resources, is forced to have recourse to the private lender operating at exorbitant rates. There are, repeatedly, campaigns against usury. Usury is a social evil, widespread in extent, an evil which, however, operates largely in secret. When, as has happened of late in many cities in the United States, the lid is lifted temporarily, and knowledge of the practice becomes general in this city or that as newspapers spread before their readers the gruesome details, public indignation easily mounts to white heat. Prosecuting officers are aroused, ancient usury statutes (generally providing that all rates in excess of 6 per cent. shall be deemed usurious) are resurrected; resolutions are adopted, and after the excitement has died down, the usurer goes quietly back to business, sure of his trade because credit resources for the masses at legitimate rates of interest are not created by temporary public excitement. The private lender — philanthropist or usurer — fills a need. It is the failure to understand that single fundamental that has resulted in so little progress through the centuries in the elimination of this great social and economic evil.

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[1] RYAN: *op. cit.*, p. 181.

The Remedial Loan Societies

Before passing to a consideration of the " Uniform Small Loan Law ", brief consideration should be given to agencies of a semi-philanthropic character which are concerned with the small-loan problem. After severing his connection with the Division of Remedial Loans of the Russell Sage Foundation, Arthur H. Ham, probably the leading small-loan authority in the United States, became associated with the Provident Loan Society of New York, the largest of the remedial loan associations. He speaks of the purpose of organisations of this character as follows : " These societies were expected to provide such competition as would result in the improvement of the methods commonly employed by money-lenders, and to afford an object lesson that would attract reputable capital to the business. It was never expected or hoped that the remedial loan societies would grow in strength or in numbers so as to monopolise the field. They were intended as experimental agencies — an object lesson — a stabilising force. " These societies are financed by private capital, upon which capital a modest return is made but which investment is inspired by a desire to supply funds for necessitous borrowers at legitimate rates. The Provident Loan Society of New York has a paid-up capital stock of approximately $15,650,000, charges 1 per cent. a month on most loans made, pays approximately a dividend of 6 per cent. on Certificates of Contribution, and has lent over $435,000,000 to over nine million borrowers since it started doing business in 1894. There are in the United States over thirty Remedial Loan Societies.

The Uniform Small Loan Law

Approaching the problem next from the viewpoint of the lender in the business at a profit, we arrive at the present state of the small-loan development in the United States. We have already considered the credit agency which operates on a quasi-charitable basis ; we have given thought to the banks and we have also considered the usurer, the lender who operates not only in open defiance of ancient usury laws but also without complying with regulatory statutes designed to care for this specific small-loan business. There still remains for consideration the Uniform Small Loan Law, and, finally, co-operative credit. For the former of these the work of the Division of Remedial Loans of the Russell Sage

Foundation is of importance. " The object of this Division ", said Mr. Ham, in the course of an address delivered on 21 September 1921, " is to conduct a campaign of public education with regard to the necessity for the small-loan business as a part of our fiscal machinery, and to point out the evil effects resulting from the operations of the prevailing commercial agencies in the field; to procure intelligent legislation based on a desire to regulate rather than to annihilate the business; to secure the enforcement of such laws and to oppose the passage of drastic, impracticable laws; to encourage the organisation of remedial loan societies. " In 1907 and 1908 Mr. Ham and Dr. Clarence Wassam had held fellowships in the Bureau of Social Research. Their work, coming to the attention of the Russell Sage Foundation, led the Foundation to finance a preliminary investigation and to publish a report on the salary and chattel-loan business[1]. A year later Mr. Ham was appointed Director of the Division of Remedial Loans. Mr. Ham early arrived at the conclusion that " if the borrowing under a law is limited by impossible restrictions than both borrower and lender will defy the law and take their chances of its being enforced. In the end the borrower always pays the price in high interest charges. "

As a result of the study carried on by the Division, a Bill for a small-loan law was drafted. This Bill and its subsequent history are well described in an address[2] by Walter S. Hilborn, Mr. Ham's temporary successor in the Division of Remedial Loans. Mr. Hilborn, during a period as acting executive head of the Division, was most active in the many campaigns which have been waged with quite remarkable success to secure the adoption of the Uniform Small Loan Law in the various States of the American Union. Mr. Hilborn spoke in part as follows: " The Uniform Small Loan Law had its inception in the City of New York. In November 1916, only six years ago, representatives of your organisation in conference with representatives of the Russell Sage Foundation agreed upon the language of the first draft, and, since that date, from time to time we have, with representatives of other organisations, made slight changes in the draft. To-day the

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[1] The words " salary and chattel-loan business " were used in this report to cover the whole field of the operations of the private moneylender, including particularly the lender who operates on the basis of either a wage assignment or a mortgage of chattels as security.

[2] Address delivered by Walter S. Hilborn at the Eighth Annual Convention of the American Industrial Lenders' Association at New York City, 20 Sept. 1922.

Uniform Small Loan Law, either in its exact form or in statutes containing many of its important provisions, is in force in nineteen States [at the present writing, twenty-two States]. . . . That small conference has changed the small-loan history of the United States." Mr. Hilborn points out in most interesting fashion that "the law is a definite commitment to the principle that the commercial lending of small sums meets the demand at present for small loans more effectively than any other method; . . . that, in order to meet the needs of the small borrower more effectively it was necessary to put the business upon a definite, legal, commercial basis." The rate provided in the law — 3½ per cent. a month on balances, or 42 per cent. per annum — is justified by Mr. Hilborn on three grounds: (1) that the risk is relatively greater, the loan of longer duration than the average bank loan, and the security of a sort not usually acceptable to a commercial bank; (2) that the operating expense is high because the amount of such loan is small and must be collected in monthly instalments, and (3) that the lending capacity of a small-loan agency is limited to its cash capital on which it must pay dividends. "We are seeking a rate", to quote Mr. Hilborn again, "which will interest legitimate capital to satisfy the small-loan requirements of every State requiring small-loan service, and it has not yet been demonstrated that commercial capital will enter the small-loan business if a lower rate is authorised." He points out that while "concerns which have large capital and efficient organisation may make more operating under this law than would strike the average man as proper, a small licensed moneylender in a medium-sized town may have a struggle to make a living under the Uniform Law."

This law provides, as indicated, an interest rate of 3½ per cent. a month on loans of $300 and less, and calls for supervision and report. It eliminates service charges, and the rate is based on balances. It requires that the lender be licensed and strictly regulates the conduct of the business. It stabilises the business and places it on a respectable basis, enabling the commercial lender to engage in the business and to keep within the law, and providing penalties for violations of its provisions by either licensed or unlicensed lenders. Its necessity and value may be illustrated by a recent case which came to the attention of the writer. A young Italian, a resident of the North End of Boston, desired a loan of $150. He went to a lender who operates in violation of the Uniform Law, which is operative in Massachusetts except that the licensed lender

may charge 36 per cent. instead of 42 per cent. on loans of three hundred dollars and less. The lender therefore required the borrower to sign a note for $301, thereby evading the law, and charged him interest at the rate of 10 per cent. a month on $301, giving him as the proceeds of the loan $150 in cash and a receipt on account for $151. The borrower thereby paid 240 per cent. interest on his loan. Had he done business with a licensed lender conforming with the Massachusetts law, he would have been charged 36 per cent.

Mr. Ryan's book, already referred to, concludes, as regards the Uniform Law[1], that " although the ideal way to define moral usury is qualitatively, it is nevertheless true that, since moral usury is always an extortionate charge for a small loan of money for consumptive purposes, it is reasonably practical to define usury quantitatively by statute. That is what the old usury laws attempted to do by guess work and what is now being done on a scientific basis by the Uniform Small Loan Law. The 3½ per cent. monthly maximum is not a perfect quantitative measurement of the evil, but for practical purposes it has been found to be satisfactory. " As this paper has to do with loans which are primarily consumptive in character it is not necessary to take issue with Mr. Ryan as to other phases of the small-loan business. His final conclusion[2] is that " the ideal system of control of loan charges will be by an administrative tribunal with powers to fix and revise the rates of different types of loans from time to time as may be found expedient and with powers to sit as a court in cases as may be found necessary. " His conclusion has to do, however, exclusively with the small-loan business as a private profit enterprise.

How the Uniform Small Loan Law works in practice and something also of the nature of the small-loan business as conducted for profit is indicated by the reports of one Company, operating a chain of New England offices. The small-loan business lends itself very naturally to the so-called " chain store " system, and many of the offices in small cities and towns are branch offices of a parent company which has its home office in a large city. This particular Company operates several offices in Massachusetts in accordance with the provisions of a regulatory law which, as already indicated, includes most of the restrictions contained in the Uniform Law, with the notable exception that the rate permitted in

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[1] RYAN: *op. cit.*, pp. 182-183.
[2] *Ibid.*, p. 185.

Massachusetts is 3 per cent. a month instead of 3½ per cent. Of the eleven offices in this chain reporting, five are located in Massachusetts, and the others in Rhode Island and Connecticut, where the Uniform Law has been enacted in its entirety. This Company reported on 5 August 1924 that " we have made nearly 9,000 loans during the past 22 months, totalling $1,500,000, on which our losses have been extremely small and our collections almost 100 per cent. The average collection for the eleven cities was 98.59 per cent. A typical month (May 1925) contains the following figures as regards earnings : principal received, $129,085 ; interest received, $23,990 ; total received, $153,075 ; total expenses $11,413 ; net profit, $12,577 ; percentage of profit on capital invested, 23.15 per cent. The percentage of net profit on capital invested for the eleven offices for April of the same year was 21.57 per cent., for March 23.85 per cent., for February 22.25 per cent., etc. " Writing on 8 May 1925 the Manager says : " Our earnings are increasing every month. " The literature issued by this Company to prospective investors also contains material of value as to the successful operation of the Uniform Law as a means of attracting capital to a stabilised and regulated business. It is set forth that loans range from $25 to $300 on " sound security " ; that " the system is standardised and expense thereby reduced " ; that " 83 per cent. of the people cannot go to a commercial bank for loans " ; that " you are placing your money where it is safe and the dividend return high, sure and regular " ; that there is " a tremendous outlet for money with practically no competition " ; that " there is no element of chance " ; that " over ten years the business has proved most profitable with a loss ratio of less than one half of one per cent. " Reporting on 5 August 1924 this Company stated that " it is at this time earning more than three times its preferred dividend ".

The experience of this Company is probably not typical ; it is indicative of the experience of what Mr. Hilborn in his address already quoted refers to as " concerns which have large capital and efficient organisation ". If the figures above quoted are typical of the lender who operates on a broad scale or though a chain store system, then the value of Mr. Ryan's suggestion, namely, a judicial tribunal to regulate rates, becomes self-apparent ; this would permit the small operator operating a single office under difficult conditions in a small town to charge a rate which will show him a fair profit, while the urban operator might be permitted to charge a lower rate than that provided in the Uniform Law if the facts disclose

that he can reduce his rate and yet make an equally fair profit.

But there should be balanced against this conclusion all the while the fact that the alternative to a regulatory law which will permit a sufficient rate to attract commercial capital to the business is usury — usury unrestrained and without limitation. Writing in the *New York Times* for 7 March 1926, Elizabeth G. Stern recalls that, prior to the adoption of the Uniform Law, " poor people were paying from 10 per cent. a month to 1,700 per cent. a year for small loans. " " Forty-two per cent. a year sounds usurious, " said the *Chicago Tribune* when the Uniform Law was pending before the Illinois legislature, " but we must remember that we are confronted with a condition, not a theory, and that the present condition is ten times worse than the proposed remedy. " When a similar Bill was pending in Kentucky, the *Louisville Herald* said (11 February 1920) : " It is not a question of 6 or 10 per cent. versus 42 per cent., but of 42 per cent. versus 1,000 per cent. And that is a tremendous, a liberating influence. " Both conclusions are sound.

The work of the Foundation is the first great scientific effort to solve the problem of usury, sucessful probably far beyond the hopes of those who made it possible. Because the principle of regulation is sound, and, for the first time, it is recognised in law that the regulation of usury to be effective must provide for the creation of credit resources, this law is a profound contribution to the solution of the problem wherever there is usury. The successful operation of the law indicates the soundness of the contention that there can be no successful small-loan legislation which fails to take into account the need of the borrower for credit, and which also fails to recognise the fact that the borrower, of the description we have in mind, is not a free agent who can be left to the protection of the law of supply and demand. There is no law of supply and demand which as yet applies to the small-loan business. A recent article in a Seattle, Washington, newspaper, under the heading, " Two Thousand Workers in Debt Toils ", sets forth the fact that " two thousand employees of the City, out of a total of approximately five thousand, are in the clutches of various small-loan agencies ". The problem is general ; as this is being written, current news clippings disclose " loan shark " operations, not only in the far West, but as far south as Atlanta, Georgia, and New Orleans, Louisiana ; in the middle west in Indianapolis, Indiana, and Chicago, Illinois ; in Boston a young man comes to the office who is paying 240 per cent. interest on a loan and wants to know what relief, if any, is open to him. Any agency which contributes

to the relief of the small borrower — and the Uniform Small Loan Law has contributed to this relief in major fashion — is performing a great public service.

So far we have alluded to co-operative credit, but without elaboration. The small-loan agencies thus far discussed have depended for their operation on charity, quasi-charity, or on a business conducted for private profit either with or without regulation. The work of the Foundation has established with fair definiteness (1) that regulatory laws are necessary; (2) that to be effective they must recognise a rate of interest high enough to attract to the business private capital and the type of lender who will operate in accordance with law; and (3) that the rate provided in the Uniform Law, to refer again to Mr. Hilborn, is the lowest rate which according to our present knowledge will ensure the attraction to the business of the needed private capital; or, repeating Mr. Ryan's conclusion, that " the three and one-half per cent. monthly maximum is not a perfect quantitative measurement of the evil, but for practical purposes it has been found to be satisfactory. "

It would seem to be a fairly accurate conclusion to deduce, finally, that if the wage worker is to have available for his use credit resources at a lower rate than 42 per cent., he must look elsewhere than to the small-loan business operated at a private profit. That brings us to co-operative credit.

Co-operative Credit

The underlying principle of the co-operative credit society is the accumulation of the savings of a group of people, the investment of the accumulation in loans at legitimate rates of interest to members of the group, and the management of the resulting business by officers chosen by and from the members of the group in meetings in which each member of the group has a single vote whatever his holding in shares and deposits may be. No one outside the group has anything at all to do with it directly or indirectly. Membership is determined by (1) identity with the group in question, and (2) subscription to at least a single share of the capital stock of the society, which share has generally a par value of five dollars and may be paid for in cash or in periodic (generally weekly) instalments of small amount (usually twenty-five cents on each share subscribed). If a member can save, for

example, one dollar a week he subscribes for four shares, paying in each week twenty-five cents (in the average credit union) on each share. By this plan the member least able to save is encouraged to save what he can ; the member who can save appreciable amounts is welcome, and subscribes to as many shares as he can save multiples of twenty-five cents weekly. A member may also make irregular deposits, but all co-operative credit societies (credit unions) in the United States stress shares ; the maximum value to the saver is contained in the development of the habit of saving in regular weekly amounts for an indefinite period. Only thus can the small saver accumulate an appreciable total. By the time the member has his first share paid for he has acquired this habit and goes right on subscribing for more shares. Incidentally, thereby the member is increasing his credit capacity by developing his own security. In 1917, 18 employees of the New England Telephone and Telegraph Company in Boston, Massachusetts, formed such a society, each original member making a small share subscription, the total original collection being less than twenty dollars. Nine years later 14,000 employees of this one Company are credit union members with total savings approximating $1,500,000.

By this method funds are accumulated and credit resources for the members of the group thereby automatically created. Loans are made for provident purposes, exclusively to members, which loans are repayable in instalments, generally on a weekly instalment basis, spread out over a year. The management is in the hands of (1) a Board of Directors, (2) a Credit Committee, and (3) a Supervisory Committee, all chosen by and from the members. The officers — President, Vice-President, Treasurer, and Clerk — are chosen by and from the Board of Directors. Members of the Board and of the Committees may not borrow in excess of their holdings nor endorse for borrowers ; as a general rule no one is paid for his services, except the Treasurer, who is the Manager and is paid what the members determine. As credit unions grow larger, however, such clerical service as may be needed is employed.

Thus in the credit union the member turns for credit — not to a professional lender who has resources which make it possible for him to enter this business — but to his fellow worker ; he unites with his own associates ; they pool their savings ; they use the resulting accumulation solely for the benefit of those to whom it belongs, namely, for the benefit of the savers. There is no

invested capital on which a preferred dividend must be paid; there is no incentive to usury, as the funds invested are the joint funds of the members, most of whom at some time or other must turn to the funds for credit. There is no large overhead expense; there is the capacity for correct credit diagnosis. The result of it all is that loans are made at normal rates of interest.

In a recent article in the *Locomotive Engineers Journal*, Leon M. Henderson writes[1]: "Out of the welter and suffering resulting from the exactions of salary buyers and other loan sharks should come a great wave of credit unions — those co-operative mutual loan societies owned and administered by their own members, loaning to their own members for worthy purposes at low rates of interest and paying all profits to members in the form of dividends." That is an excellent tabloid definition of a credit union. The ultimate solution of the small-loan problem is not to be found in capital privately invested; it will be more nearly approached by co-operative credit.

Let us, then, approach the credit union carefully. The development of co-operative credit in the United States has been greatly retarded by an inclination to make abnormal claims for it, to anticipate miracles, to expect unnaturally rapid development. There are no short cuts to the millenium. The road is long and rough, the detours many, and the final objective as far away as the foot of the rainbow. The credit union is a sane, business-like device for creating credit — not for every applicant, but for every applicant eligible to and worthy of credit; not for all purposes, but for purposes which hold forth a real probability of ultimate value to the borrower. Credit unions succeed when the plan is properly applied; by the same token, they fail when improperly managed. Success is in every case the result of hard work. In the credit union most of this work is done unselfishly. It is necessary to find some substitute for the compelling motive which brings as a reward to the private lender a high return on his money. The successful credit unionist must be touched with the passion for service; he must realise that his organisation has in it something of the principle of the brotherhood of man — that it is a "co-operative" organisation built on a foundation of the strength of unity for a common purpose; as the credit union grows in size and assets, those who do the bulk of the work will be paid

[1] "The Salary Buyer Must Go", by Leon M. Henderson, in the *Locomotive Engineers' Journal* for Aug. 1926. Cleveland, Ohio.

something and adequately; but whether the credit union be large or small, they must have at least a glimmering sense of that intangible something which may make a human being conscious of his capacity, large though it be or small, to perform unselfish service. Such sense is rare, though not so rare as popularly imagined. Coupled with that must be hard-headed business acumen, good sense, an understanding of credit, and the will to make the business succeed as a business. Co-operation is not a miracle; it is a plan of human association in business for the joint and several good of those who are so associated, and there can be no good result from the operations of any co-operative society — whether it deal in credit or in any other commodity — unless the business is a success as a business. There is little sense in a plan of profit division if there be no profits to divide.

The Credit Union

Historical Significance

The term "credit union" was adopted in Massachusetts in 1909 to describe the co-operative savings and loan association authorised by a law enacted in that year by the Massachusetts legislature. The words were probably chosen to connote that this type of organisation was a union of members for the purpose of creating credit resources for each other. The Massachusetts law resulted from interest in co-operative credit on the part of the then Bank Commissioner of the State, Pierre Jay[1]. At about the same time Edward A. Filene of Boston had made some study of co-operative credit abroad, and became much interested in the possible application of the plan to the relief of necessitous borrowers in his home State of Massachusetts. He collaborated and, after the enactment of the Massachusetts law, became identified with the credit union development in Massachusetts. He subsequently organised the Credit Union National Extension Bureau in order that similar credit union laws might be enacted in other States, and the credit union service spread nationally; this work he finances alone as a disinterested public service. By his untiring zeal and devotion, and sacrifice of time and money, Mr. Filene has become primarily responsible for the development of co-operative banking in the United States.

[1] *Report of the Bank Commissioner, Massachusetts, 1918*, p. 49.

In the preparation of the Massachusetts draft Alphonse Desjardins, of Levis, Province of Quebec, Canada, was called into consultation. Mr. Desjardins had organised at Levis in 1900 the first co-operative savings and loan association of this type in North America, called " La Caisse Populaire de Levis[1] ", which he always referred to in English as the Co-operative People's Bank of Levis. This organisation, inspired by great sufferings resulting from the practice of usurers in the Province of Quebec, had been preceded by fifteen years of study of European precedents, particularly the banks and credit societies of Raiffeisen and Schulze-Delitzsch in Germany, and Luzzatti in Italy. Subsequent to the organisation of his first co-operative credit society in Levis, Desjardins organised several other societies similar in type throughout the Province, and at the time of his death in 1921 was generally acknowledged the foremost authority on co-operative banking in North America. The Massachusetts draft followed, in its main stipulations, the plan of operation developed by Desjardins, and the credit union of Massachusetts traces its ancestry quite directly to Raiffeisen and Schulze-Delitzsch through La Caisse Populaire of Desjardins.

It will be remembered that the first society organised by Raiffeisen was for the purpose of lending money to peasants and making it possible for them to acquire live stock on the instalment plan. The land was in the grip of famine, and when the peasants were able to get credit at all, it was only at usurious rates. This early society was not co-operative, but in 1854 he founded a society at Heddesford which he shortly reorganised as a co-operative institution, based entirely on the self-help principle. The Schulze-Delitzsch development, on the other hand, was primarily an urban movement. His first co-operative effort was the formation of a relief committee during the very difficult year 1846-1847 to collect funds with which a mill was rented for buying and grinding flour and a bakery for making and distributing bread to the destitute, free or at a very low price. Both systems — the one applied to the farmer, the other to the city dweller — were co-operative, based on the self-help principle; they differed, however, widely in the application of that principle. Schulze-Delitzsch, for example, believed in a large mixed membership drawn from an unrestricted area; Raiffeisen in a small membership of one class confined to

[1] Alphonse DESJARDINS: *The Co-operative People's Bank*, p. 27. Published by the Russell Sage Foundation, 1914.

a small area. Schulze-Delitzsch believed that the officers should be compensated; Raiffeisen in gratuitous service. Schulze-Delitzsch favoured large dividends; Raiffeisen no distribution of profit, but the development of indivisible reserves. The aim of the Schulze-Delitzsch societies was materialistic, while Raiffeisen's underlying motive was humanitarian.

In his book, Desjardins, speaking of the influence of this early European experience on his work, says[1]: "Two German economists were the first to obtain a clear conception of the economic needs of the working and agricultural classes. . . . The names of Schulze-Delitzsch and Raiffeisen are inseparably attached to the history of the beneficent institutions they founded. . . . It is the very essence of this system which has been introduced in Canada under the People's Banks." In the preface to Mr. Desjardins' book, Mr. Ham writes: "To the efforts of Mr. Desjardins and Mr. Pierre Jay is due in no small part the interest now being manifested in the subject in the United States, for it was at the invitation of the latter, while Bank Commissioner of Massachusetts, that Mr. Desjardins visited that State in 1908 to explain to the legislative committee on banking the theory and practice of his Canadian system. . . . As a result of the effort of these two men, Massachusetts enacted in 1910 a credit union law."

Functions

The general plan of the co-operative credit society has already been discussed. The functions of a credit union are really threefold: (*a*) to promote thrift among the members through a system, as already explained, which specialises in the saving possibilities of the member least able to save, while encouraging the member who can save appreciable amounts to save to his maximum capacity; (*b*) to create credit resources for the members at legitimate rates of interest for provident purposes; (*c*) to educate the members in matters having to do with the management and control of money. The plan works well within groups varying from 50 to 15,000 members. In North Carolina the credit unions are rural, and the membership in each case is limited to a definite rural district. In cities, credit unions are organised for the most part within such well-defined groups as the employees of a given factory, store,

[1] *The Co-operative People's Bank*, p. 8.

mill, or other industrial unit; the inhabitants of a given neighbourhood or small village or town; the members of a labour union; the members of a given church parish, or fraternal or racial society; within a given group of State, municipal, federal, or public service employees, etc. There is a considerable variety of types of credit union organisation, but the plan works best when the group within which the credit union is organised is conscious of some common interest which unites its members. Loans are divided into: (*a*) remedial loans — made necessary by sickness, death, unemployment, and similar emergencies; (*b*) constructive loans, which include helping members to buy small businesses or to finance businesses until the borrowing member's means grow to banking size, to help build, buy, maintain, repair, and pay the taxes on homes, to assist members to buy co-operatively, and any sort of loan which promises to improve the borrower's status or position in life. Summarised, a credit union is a co-operative society in the business of selling its members credit at low rates of interest.

Before discussing the applicability of the credit union to the small loans problem, one matter should be cleared up which often causes confusion. While there are very successful credit unions organised among members of a pre-existing trade union, the credit union and the "labour bank", so called, should not be confused. The "labour bank", as the term is commonly understood in the United States, is first of all a commercial bank organised under an existing State or federal law and authorised to do a typical banking business. The unique basis of its organisation is contained in a theory (which has now been well demonstrated in practice) that the members of a trade union of large membership can own and operate such a bank by vesting control of the capital stock in the union and concentrating in the bank an appreciable part of the savings or funds of both the union and its members. While these banks attract other depositors and do a general banking business, they depend for their nucleus on the members of the union controlling the bank. Within a typical bank of this sort, therefore, 51 per cent. at least of the capital stock belongs to the union, and the balance, so far as possible, is sold to members of the union. The shareholders usually agree to accept a dividend which shall not exceed a certain limit; any earnings in excess of the limit are divided among the depositors. Thus, by agreement as distinguished from a requirement of law, these banks have a quasi-co-operative significance. Further, they specialise in the

investment, credit, and savings problems of their depositors and stockholders, and they bring banking service very directly intelligently, and sympathetically to their people. Banks of this sort are particularly successful when organised within large, well managed, and adequately financed unions of very appreciable financial resources, such as the Brotherhood of Locomotive Engineers, now operating several such banks, with a home bank in one of the finest office buildings in Cleveland, Ohio, owned by the Brotherhood, and the Amalgamated Clothing Workers of America, operating a very successful bank of this type in New York City. There are as yet no State laws, nor is there a federal law authorising the organisation of a co-operative commercial bank.

Credit Union Progress

Before discussing the extent of credit union progress in the United States, it may be noted that the development has been tardy and not particularly satisfactory to those who, cognisant of the small-loans problem and confident of the capacity of the credit union to solve that problem, find it difficult to understand why more rapid progress has not been possible. The Massachusetts law was enacted eighteen years ago ; since then similar laws have been enacted in twenty-three other States. Of these laws, four are hopelessly defective and cannot be utilised until they are radically amended. Of the remaining twenty laws, eight have been enacted within the past two years and sixteen within the past four years, so that, of necessity, the development in most States is thus far of a pioneering nature.

A single experience indicates the existence of the problem and the value of the credit union as a curative. An investigation of usury as practised on employees of the City of Boston was conducted in 1915, at the instigation of the then mayor, James M. Curley. It was disclosed that over 1,200 employees of the City had loans with private lenders, at an average interest rate of 180 per cent. A credit union of city employees was organised to deal with this situation. Two years later it had made 725 loans amounting to $56,698. According to its most recent Report (31 October 1925) this credit union had assets of $100,496 and 1,738 members ; during 1925 it did a business of $216,327. It has completely solved the problem so acute in 1915. A similar credit union which serves the employees of the City of New York has over 10,000 members,

assets of more than $1,000,000, and has done a small-loan business among its members of approximately $9,000,000 in ten years without loss. At the end of its first year, it had assets of less than $600. These loans have been made possible by the savings of members, administered solely by members.

That development in the United States has been slow is probably due to: (1) the size of the national domain; (2) the fact that the population of the United States is not homogeneous and the problem differs in different States; (3) the further fact that each State constitution differs, and the problem of securing adequate legislation varies greatly; (4) the fact that thus far it has been impossible to get State appropriations for the purpose of spreading adequate information as to the potential value of the system; (5) the fact that most credit union development, elsewhere than in America, has been preceded by a period of such economic depression as to compel workers to organise credit unions for their mutual protection; such a situation has not developed as yet in the United States; and, finally, (6) the fact that development in the United States has thus far purposely followed the laboratory or experimental method.

The sixth conclusion is illustrated by the programme of credit union development within postal groups. Three years ago the first credit union of the sort was organised at the Brockton, Massachusetts, Post Office. It started with twelve members and eighteen dollars. This office employs 114 people. This experiment was watched carefully for a considerable period; as the result of its success similar credit unions have, within the past three and a half years, been organised in 73 offices, thus far reaching over 12,000 employees of the postal department. Within the three and a half years they have made small loans aggregating $1,599,645. They have demonstrated again two important facts: (1) that the problem of usury is general, and (2) that the plan will work as well within a group of 50 employees (at the Petersburg, Virginia, office) as within a group which already exceeds 2,000 (in the Boston, Massachusetts, office). In similar experimental fashion the plan is now being extended to railway employees, with the first twenty credit unions of the sort operating in as many States. The first three credit unions of school teachers have been organised in Detroit, Chicago, and St. Paul — another possible chain group. The initial credit union of world war veterans has been started at the national headquarters of the American Legion, again in an experimental way, in the hope that the success of the experi-

ment may pave the way for the general adoption of the plan by American Legion posts.

It is now beginning to be evident in Massachusetts and New York that an appreciable credit union development within a State is possible. In Massachusetts, for example, in 1910 one credit union reported assets of $2,448 and 105 members. In 1914 there were 47 credit unions, with a total membership of 6,149 and resources of $279,358. The 1918 Report lists 59 credit unions, with assets slightly less than two million dollars. In 1921 there were 82 credit unions, with assets of $4,047,172 and 32,226 members. The most recent statement from the office of the Massachusetts Commissioner of Banks (all credit unions are under the supervision of the State Banking Department for report and examination) shows present assets of $9,492,145 with 70,568 members. In Massachusetts, during the six months from October 1925 to June 1926 credit union assets increased by $833,000 and membership by 15,421. Daring the last six months of 1926 and the first three months of 1927 over 200 new credit unions were organised in Massachusetts, and it is estimated that there are at present 100,000 members of Massachusetts credit unions with the total assets well in excess of $12,000,000.

In passing it may be relevant to note that the Massachusetts law was enacted in 1909 ; that conditions became abnormal shortly after the outbreak of the war in 1914 and that, during the period beginning with the entry of the United States into the war in 1917 and through 1918, followed by the abnormal inflation and deflation periods of 1919, 1920, and 1921, no normal development of credit unions could be expected. Raiffeisen's period of pioneering lasted from 1849 to 1869 and the rapid development of his societies began in 1880.

The New York credit union law was enacted in 1913. In 1915 15 credit unions were organised and the total assets of the 17 credit unions then doing business were $68,777. The 1921 Report lists 82 credit unions with total assets of $4,445,297. The most recent report available brings the figures up to 31 December 1925, showing total assets of $12,093,982 and a total membership of 68,067, with total loans outstanding of $10,242,566 to 28,884 borrowers.

The development in North Carolina, particularly retarded by the war and the post-war deflation, has been primarily rural and concerned with small farmers who have been helped materially by the credit unions of the State, particularly by the promotion of co-operative buying of farm supplies and machinery.

In general, there are credit unions in twenty-four States, and Bills to authorise credit union organisation will be pending in 1927 before legislatures of five additional States. The States with laws are Massachusetts, New Hampshire, Rhode Island, New York, New Jersey, West Virginia, Virginia, North Carolina, South Carolina, Tennessee, Kentucky, Mississippi, Louisiana, Georgia, Indiana, Texas, Utah, Oregon, Nebraska, Iowa, Wisconsin, Minnesota, Illinois, Michigan; of these laws the Utah, Oregon, Nebraska and Texas laws are in need of amendment. Bills for credit union legislation will be pending in 1927 before the State Legislatures of Alabama, California, Washington, Missouri, Ohio, and possibly Connecticut and Maryland. Because the State laws in most States are of such recent origin the credit union development in these States is now in its preliminary stage[1].

Enough progress has been made for it to be possible to say conservatively that the experimental period of co-operative credit in the United States is far advanced. Four credit unions, for example — Central Falls, at Central Falls, Rhode Island, a community credit union and the largest in point of assets in the United States; the Ste. Marie, a Catholic parish credit union, located at Manchester, New Hampshire; the Skandia, a credit union of Scandinavians at Worcester, Massachusetts; and the credit union serving the employees of the New England Telephone and Telegraph Company — have each passed a million dollars in assets. On the other hand, the small credit union does as well. Because their overhead expenses are low, the urban credit unions can lend at relatively low rates and yet pay their shareholders a very fair dividend, while the rural credit unions, stressing more the credit phase of their activity, make loans at even lower rates, following the Raiffeisen plan of ignoring dividends and building up reserves. The urban credit unions also set aside a reserve fund, consisting generally of 20 per cent. of the net annual profits, and credit unions have come through the very difficult war and post-war periods without scandal or involuntary liquidations, and with losses far below the minimum of ordinary banking institutions. The great Skandia credit union at Worcester, with assets well over $1,150,000,

[1] Since the manuscript was written, general credit union laws have been enacted in the States of California and Missouri, and Bills are pending at the present date in Alabama and Florida. A Bill is pending in the Nebraska Legislature to perfect the Nebraska law, and quite recently by special exactment of the Maine State Legislature a credit union, to which 10,000 railroad employees of that State are eligible, was authorised.

is typical in this respect and has never suffered a single loss in its ten years of operation.

Almost exclusively, they are managed by wage workers. It was calculated recently that the twenty members of the Board of Directors of the Massachusetts Credit Union League (a co-operative association of Massachusetts credit unions which now directs the development in that State) each of whom is the manager of a credit union, operate a business totalling $8,000,000 a year; not the business of all the credit unions in the League, but simply the total of the credit union business managed by the twenty Directors. No one of them ever managed anything more important than his individual pay envelope prior to the organisation of his credit union, and the credit union business they manage is subject to the super-critical examination of the Massachusetts State Department of Banking, a scrutiny to which many private businesses could not successfully be submitted. There is no problem of the value of the credit union to the " worker " as distinguished from the value of the credit union in general — for the credit union is the creation of the worker. It would seem that people have been forced to the dependence on each other which has resulted in co-operation only when they have been brought face to face with the futility of attempting to withstand adverse circumstance either by standing alone or by depending on folks not vitally affected by the same problem. The essence of co-operation is self-help. In the case earlier referred to, the usurer was scourged from the Boston city hall when the victims of the usurer found a way whereby they could unite their resources, which were found to be ample to make the scourging possible. To understand the credit union it is only necessary to read the fable of the bundle of sticks. Because credit unions are managed by workers they approach the workers' credit problem with understanding. The credit union, for example, develops for the member negotiable assets, thereby simplifying his credit problem by creating security. Yet it should not be concluded that the credit union, like most banking institutions, does not extend credit until the member has accumulated a savings or share account equal to or in excess of the credit which at any given time he may need. In this connection it should be borne in mind that the credit union law and the by-laws of the individual credit unions fix certain limitations on its business. Each credit union, for example, fixes the rate of interest which it will charge and the classification of loans, with the general rule always prevailing that the rate must be legitimate or reasonable. As overhead

expenses are low the credit union will be able to pay a dividend which bears a close relationship to the rate charged. If the prevailing rate on loans is 8 per cent., the prevailing rate of dividend will be 6 to 6½ per cent. To be a borrower, one must be a member, so that, in small or large degree, the borrower, whatever the rate of interest he pays on his loan, is getting back a part of it in dividends. Generally speaking a credit union will make a loan up to fifty or a hundred dollars without security if, in the given case, the credit committee is satisfied with the borrower — that he will keep faithfully his obligations. That credit committees become very expert in this matter is indicated by the very small losses of credit unions. The fact is worth repeating that credit unions are the only type of banking institutions which have had no involuntary liquidatious during the very difficult war and post-war periods. Assume, however, that a prospective borrower is a member of the group from which the credit union is recruited, but not a member of the credit union. He finds himself in great need of credit accommodation and tells his story to the credit union treasurer. He will not be rejected immediately because he is not a member. He must become a member, which he can do by subscribing to an initial share, paying the first instalment on it and the entrance fee — a total cost in the average credit union of fifty cents. If the Directors are satisfied with his character, he will be admitted to membership and may then apply for credit. His case will be considered by the Credit Committee in the same fashion as if his holdings were material. On the other hand, the fact that his holdings are not material has a bearing on the terms on which credit will be extended to him. He may be required to get an endorser, and to subscribe to shares a proportionate part of his loan, so that each week, as he makes repayments on his loan, he will also be making a small additional payment on shares, and when the loan is repaid he also has some paid-up shares in the credit union. He will probably be obliged to repay the loan within a shorter time; all the circumstances will be taken into account, but if there is any way in which the applicant can be assisted, consistent with the safe investment of the funds of the credit union, such credit assistance will be afforded him. In innumerable instances credit unions extend credit to members who have just joined and are without any holdings of importance in the credit union.

Relation to other Co-operative Enterprises

What is the place of the credit union in the general co-operative development? As a part of that development the credit union has both tangible and intangible value. Its practical value is the application of the co-operative principle to the business of selling credit. Thus far in credit unions this small-loan service has been extended almost entirely to individual members who are natural persons. In a recent revision of the Massachusetts credit union law it is provided that " any fraternal organisation, voluntary association, partnership or corporation, composed principally of individual members or stockholders who are themselves members of the credit union, may become a member ". Such a member may borrow only to the amount of its holdings, except with permission of the Commissioner of Banks, and the total holdings in the credit union by other than natural persons may not exceed one.quarter of the assets of the credit union. This permits limited membership on the part of a co-operative society recruited from the same general group as the membership of the credit union. In a few of the State laws it is specifically provided that " organisations (incorporated or otherwise) composed for the most part of the same general group as the credit union membership may be members ", and that the powers of the credit union include the right " to make loans to a co-operative society or other organisations having membership in the credit union ". The enactment of laws containing this broad provision is of such recent origin that it has not yet been worked out even experimentally in practice. Conceivably there may eventually be developed a type of credit union, organised within the same groups as compose the membership of a co-operative store or other enterprise of a co-operative character, which may be the bank through which the co-operative society does its business.

Such an organisation might also relieve the co-operative store of its credit problem. This does not mean that the credit union would take over the bad debts contracted at the store. The credit union can no more afford to make loans that are not going to be promptly repaid than the co-operative store can afford to carry charge accounts that are of questionable value. A loan enabling a member to buy provisions, clothes, and other necessities of life is of course a loan " for a provident purpose ". Credit unions repeatedly, for example, concern themselves with loans

to members to make it possible for the borrowers to escape the necessity of trading at instalment houses which extend credit at a high rate of interest. In the United States within the past two years there has been a rapid development of instalment buying, much of which has been promoted without regard for the capacity of the consuming public to pay. " It is estimated by the Farmers' Loan and Trust Company that $3,293,411,878 of automobiles, phonographs, radio sets, vacuum cleaners, washing machines, furniture, pianos, jewellery, etc., are sold annually on the instalment plan in the United States. The statistics of the United States Chamber of Commerce show $5,000,000,000 of goods sold on instalment. President Merseles of Montgomery Ward says that this instalment business will have the effect to postpone the business depression, but that it will cause the depression to last longer when it comes[1]. " One difficulty with the instalment plan, whether applied to necessities or to luxuries, is the failure in most cases to relate the immediate instalment contract in mind to the other credit obligations of the instalment buyer. One recent case was that of a barber who earned $40 a week and became much involved financially, much to his surprise, because he had regular employment at a good wage. An investigation of his affairs indicated that he had entered instalment contracts totalling $68 per week. The credit union, by its thrift plan, really " sells savings on the instalment plan " ; by its credit plan it extends credit to the member only after such investigation as takes into account the total of his credit obligations. The store-keeper has neither the facilities nor the training which enable him to make a proper determination of the individual capacity for credit ; it is at best with him a secondary issue. With the credit union, credit diagnosis is the primary issue.

Summary

Finally, it may be well to repeat some of the fundamentals of successful credit union operations. (1) The organisation should be within a group. This group limitation may be large ; there are 14,000 members of the credit unions of employees of the one Company, the New England Telephone and Telegraph Company, and yet the plan works as well among the 50 employees of the

[1] *Co-operation*, Sept. 1926.

Petersburg, Virginia, Post Office. (2) The limitation should be such that the credit committee may have easily available the knowledge upon which an accurate credit diagnosis may be based. (3) The officers (members of the board and committees) work for nothing; they must be loyal, eager for the success of the organisation, willing to put in hard work and appreciable sacrifice; they may neither borrow nor endorse for borrowers in excess of their holdings in the credit union. It must therefore be possible to find within the group a governing body composed of individuals of ability and devotion. (4) The Treasurer (Manager) may be paid such amount as the members determine and, with the larger credit unions, this officer is well paid; clerical assistants may also be employed. (5) Interest rates must be kept low and operating expenses at a minimum in order that the bulk of what is earned may be returned to the members in dividends. (6) There must be a central place to which the members may come without inconvenience; the credit union must be at the member's elbow and adjusted to his service. (7) Loans must be repaid promptly and in regular instalments. (8) Accounts must be kept with accuracy (9) Within each group there must be the possibility of some members who are not borrowers; obviously a 100 per cent. borrowing membership would not be able to accumulate the funds sufficient to meet the loan demands. In the average credit union from one-third to one-half of the members are borrowers. (11) The withdrawing membership must not be in too great proportion to the permanent membership. The plan will not work well, for example, in an industrial unit with a 50 per cent. annual labour turnover, or within a community group where the population is essentially a floating rather than a fairly stabilised population. While a credit union operates like a bank with an annual or semi-annual dividend and interest calculated on deposits monthly, and while any member may, as a matter of practice, in the typical credit union withdraw without notice, yet the law or governing regulation should give the credit union (as is the practice in the United States) the right to an appreciable notice of intended withdrawal.

Can the credit union be so universally applied that every wage worker in need of credit will be eligible to a credit union which will extend credit to him? No. If Mr. A. wishes to open a credit account at the grocery store with (*a*) either a determination in advance not to pay or (*b*) the incapacity to pay for the goods thereby acquired, he should not have credit accommodation at that

store, and all uncollectable store accounts may be accounted for by the failure of the storekeeper properly to appraise Mr. A. If Mr. A. is not entitled to credit at the store his problem is not a credit problem and he would not be entitled to credit from the credit union. Fortunately, the Mr. A.'s are few and far between. The funds of the credit union belong to the members and it is the sacred obligation of the officers (who, as already indicated, are chosen by and from the members) so to manage the funds that they will remain intact and pay fair dividends. On the other hand it is the business of the credit union to extend credit and, to an extent much greater than is now the case, the credit union plan should be available to workers in need of and deserving credit. It should eventually be the primary credit agency of the worker. John M. Glenn, for many years Director of the Russell Sage Foundation, says in the *Credit Union Primer*[1] : " There is no doubt that the co-operative associations are the best agencies for dealing with the problem of small loans as well as those of thrift. " And Mr. Ham, part-author of the *Primer*, says : " The credit union is the simplest form of co-operation. Its success depends not so much on the business ability and acumen of its members as upon their thrift, their willingness to assume personal responsibility for and to act in sympathy with their fellows. "

Conclusion

After some study of the subject the following provisional conclusions are offered : " provisional " because they are based on experience with the small-loan problem in the United States, and, however international in extent the problem may be, its solution within any given national unit will inevitably be affected by general social, economic, and political conditions existing therein. In the United States the problem has been approached in three ways : (1) by such agencies as the remedial loan societies carrying on a small-loan business as a quasi-philanthropic undertaking ; (2) by private lenders operating at a profit, either (*a*) under regulatory laws and particularly the Uniform Small Loans Law or (*b*) in defiance of law and at usurious rates ; (3) by means of co-operative credit, in process of development through the credit

[1] Arthur H. Ham and Leonard G. Robinson : *Credit Union Primer*. Preface by John M. Glenn. Published by the Russell Sage Foundation, 1914.

union plan of operation. Owing primarily to the work of the Russell Sage Foundation it has been scientifically demonstrated that there can be no solution of the problem which fails to recognise the fundamental fact that credit resources must be created to fill the need that exists for small loans service. The result of the enactment of the Uniform Small Loans Law has been to stabilise the private small-loan business and to attract respectable capital to it and bring it under regulation. To make this result possible a rate of 42 per cent. per annum has been legalised. Owing primarily to the efforts of Edward A. Filene, it has been established that the worker can organise credit unions in co-operation with his fellow workers and thereby accumulate their joint savings, and in the process solve their own credit problems at normal rates of interest; that if the necessitous borrower is to have credit at a lower rate than 3½ per cent. a month, he must work out his own salvation, which he is entirely capable of doing through credit union organisation. The problem in the United States is reduced to one of quantity production of credit unions, and co-operative credit should work as well elsewhere to assist the worker to solve his credit problem when the principle is properly applied.

The credit union then is of significance as the successful application of co-operative credit by the worker to the solution of his small-loan problem. Further, the credit union is a kindergarten school and the subject taught is the businesslike management of money. Such teaching is essentially preliminary to the businesslike management of any other type of co-operative enterprise. Finally, if we are properly conscious of the very definite obligation we owe to the day and generation beyond our own, we need not particularly assume the rôle of soothsayer or prophet to foresee the significance of co-operative credit as a contribution to that eventual objective — a closer attainment of the brotherhood of man. For the credit union teaches the individual that by working intelligently with his brother he may the more readily make the far objectives.

REPORTS AND ENQUIRIES

Native Labour in Southern Rhodesia

A report has been laid before the special Congress of the Rhodesia Agricultural Union held in Salisbury on 4 and 5 April 1927, by a Committee on Native Labour appointed at the last Congress[1].

The terms of reference of the Committee were :

(1) to consider and report on the question of native labour, both indigenous and alien, and

(2) to make recommendations with a view to the improvement of the labour supply.

The Committee has come to the conclusion that a solution of the labour problem in Southern Rhodesia can only be reached by the general adoption of a comprehensive and progressive native policy, having for its aim not only the improvement of the worker by the extension of suitable training facilities, but also the material improvement of the conditions under which he works.

The Committee considered that the two problems of indigenous and alien natives would be simplified by separate treatment.

Indigenous Natives

In the essential interests of the indigenous natives themselves, as well as in the interests of the whole country, it is recognised that there exists a great and growing need for the adoption of suitable measures with a view to the development of their industrial capacity and morale. The Committee is of opinion that the chief obstacles which at present stand in the way of this development are :

(1) the inadequacy of the existing machinery of administration in the reserves, which has failed to provide an effective substitute for the old tribal and parental discipline and control ;

(2) the lack of any sufficient inducement to work inside the reserves or to seek work outside ;

(3) excessive beer drinking ;

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[1] The Rhodesia Agricultural Union is a federation of the chief agricultural associations in Southern Rhodesia. The recommendations of its Native Labour Committee have no governmental character, but, in view of the representative nature of the Union and of the technical competence of its Committee, they will assuredly receive full consideration by the Government. The summary given above is based on the full text as printed in the *Rhodesia Herald* of 18 February 1927.

(4) the moral difficulties caused by the influx of large numbers of alien native men who are for long periods detached from their homes and communities.

Administration of Reserves

The Committee recommends the appointment in each native reserve of a Resident Native Commissioner with greatly increased powers for dealing with all problems within his area. In general the jurisdiction of the Commissioner should be confined to the reserve in his charge, but it is recognised that in sparsely populated areas it may be necessary to extend his magisterial powers to include mining and farming centres in the neighbourhood of the reserves. The Native Commissioner would appoint headmen, who would be responsible for the sections of the reserve under their control. Such headmen would be called together periodically to discuss with the Native Commissioner the affairs of the reserve. The training and administrative experience thus acquired would be the best preparation for the abler headmen in the country for eventual membership of any rural native council which in due course may be established by the Government.

Each taxable male native living in the reserves should, in the opinion of the Committee, be required to contribute a sum of not more than thirty shillings per annum towards a development fund for the betterment of the reserve in which it is collected. This fund would be administered by the Native Commissioner in consultation with the headmen appointed by him.

Mission Stations and Education

With regard to the functions of missionaries, the Committee, with one exception, maintains that the wide extent of the freedom which is rightly accorded to the missions within the sphere of morals and religion makes it all the more incumbent on these missions to recognise without reservation that, in all matters lying outside this sphere, the sole and plenary authority is that of the State. The adoption of any course of action on the part of the missions capable of conveying to the native mind the impression that the authority of the State in its administrative capacity is impugned by them is therefore much to be deprecated in the interests both of the native and of the whole community.

In problems of education the Native Commissioner in each reserve, while exercising general control, would act in consultation with the Education Department, the missionaries and the native chiefs. It is suggested that no teachers be allowed to exercise their profession until they have satisfied the Education Department of their qualifications, and have received a licence entitling them to teach. The Committee concurs in the recommendation of the Native Education Commission that Government grants should be determined by the qualifications of the teacher and the nature of the curriculum, and not on a *per capita*

basis as at present[1]. It is felt that the existing scheme of native education requires careful investigation and revision in order to evolve a system which will train the natives to be useful citizens.

Health

The Committee draws attention to the high infant mortality among the indigenous natives, and to the prevalence of venereal disease. With a view to combating these evils the first requirement is provision of medical officers in the native reserves, though, as an alternative, substantial grants might be made to medical missionaries. Hospitals and dispensaries should also be established where most needed, more especially for the treatment of venereal disease. The important question of sanitation and water supply should be left in the hands of the Native Commissioners.

Kaffir Farming

With regard to native farming, the Committee considers that all native squatters, other than those under definite labour contracts with European employers, should at the earliest possible date be transferred to the native reserves to which they may be allocated, to reside there until such time as they wish to seek work under European employers.

Farmers should, however, in every way encourage indigenous natives to make their homes and establish their families on their farms. The present practice, where it prevails, of discouraging natives from bringing their womenfolk to their place of work, is open to serious objections, on both moral and economic grounds.

Beer drinking

Examining the excessive beer drinking among indigenous natives, the Committee by a majority came to the conclusion that total prohibition was neither feasible nor desirable. Brewing in the native reserves and the alcoholic percentage of the brew, however, should be placed under the effective control of the Native Commissioners, while the sale of it in any circumstances should be made illegal.

Famine Relief

The cyclical recurrence in Southern Rhodesia of years of scarcity in alternation with years of plenty may be regarded as a fact of experience so well established as to justify the Government in the adoption of precautionary measures for famine relief. It is therefore suggested

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[1] Report of the Commission appointed to enquire into the matter of native education in all its bearings in the Colony of Southern Rhodesia, 1925, sec. 545.

that the Native Commissioners be empowered to store quantities of grain in the years of plenty for use in the lean years. This procedure would tend to encourage thrift amongst the natives, and would reduce the expenditure which the Government now has to incur in times of famine.

Problems of Employment

The Committee considers that every endeavour should be made to encourage natives to apprentice their sons and daughters to suitable employers. There is ample evidence that large numbers of native youths are growing up in idleness and under no effective control. Under tribal customs the parents expect some measure of support from their children, and complaints are numerous from the older men that owing to the weakening of parental authority the obligation of sons to contribute to the support of their parents is frequently evaded.

In any acceptable scheme of apprenticeship safeguards should be included for the fair treatment of the apprentices by their employers, and specific provision should be made for their training in useful forms of work. A portion of the wages earned should be paid to the parents, who should be given adequate facilities for visiting their children at work.

The Committee recommends that on farms and in European households facilities be offered under appropriate conditions for the employment of native women in suitable occupations.

The practice which has been adopted by natives employed in semi-skilled occupations of carrying books containing testimonials from previous employers should be encouraged, and might with advantage be extended gradually to natives in all forms of employment.

Alien Natives

The Committee points out that, although Southern Rhodesia has available at the present time a relatively large volume of alien labour, it is evident that the sources of this supply are strictly limited, and that in the near future, owing to the industrial developments of the neighbouring countries, a serious contraction is inevitable.

In the meantime the system of food stations and free ferries on the northern border which has been inaugurated by the Government has achieved so large a measure of success that a gradual extension of the scheme is recommended.

The Committee also considers that the Government should undertake the formation of labour exchanges, and should in the larger centres establish rest houses where free food and lodging can be obtained. Employers requiring labour would themselves go to the depots, or send accredited labour agents, so that the recruiting of natives would be directly under the eye of the depot manager, who would be responsible for fair play for the labourer.

It is recommended that no direct tax be levied on any alien native

until he has become domiciled in Southern Rhodesia, and thus entitled to the same benefits as indigenous natives. Alien natives should be encouraged to bring their wives and children with them. The presence of the family unit would tend both to permanence of employment and to the lessening of the special dangers to alien and to indigenous natives alike which are inherent in the present system, with its lack of provision for married quarters. It would also tend in the course of time to the rearing in the rural districts of a permanent supply of skilled or semi-skilled labourers accustomed from infancy to the ordinary requirements of rural life in a civilised community.

General

Punishments

With one dissentient, the Committee recommends that the forms of punishment for crime be brought more closely into conformity with the mentality of the native. Instead of ordinary imprisonment, reasonable fines, spare diet, and solitary confinement for short periods should be substituted, while for short terms of imprisonment, especially in the case of first offenders, caning in moderation should be established. The fact must be reckoned with that the mere going to gaol is not generally considered by natives either as a slur or as a hardship.

The Committee is of opinion that there are too many prosecutions of natives for purely technical offences often committed in ignorance, and suggests that the Government might investigate the position. Where natives are found guilty of such offences they should, where possible, be allowed to work for employers until the fines imposed have been earned, rather than be sent to prison.

Pass Laws

A number of natives, more particularly in the towns, evade the pass laws and exist without visible means of employment. It is therefore recommended that each native should receive a distinctive badge at the time he receives a town pass, which must be worn while he is in employment.

Management.

The Committee is satisfied that there is a considerable wastage of labour due to uneconomic methods of working. While it is recognised that it is primarily the duty of the employer to arrange for the economical handling of his native labour, the Government might with advantage carry out experiments with labour-saving devices.

Conclusions.

The Committee considered a number of recommendations forwarded by the branch associations of the Rhodesia Agricultural Union. Some

have been incorporated in the report, others have been rejected as impracticable. In this connection the Committee refers more particularly to four proposals which it regards in the existing circumstances of the country as uneconomic, and therefore foredoomed to failure.

(1) The proposal to standardise wages in the rural areas;

(2) The proposal to resort to forced labour in any shape or form;

(3) The proposal to prohibit the migration of indigenous natives to neighbouring territories;

(4) The proposal to remit the tax payable by natives in the employment of Europeans.

The Committee states that it is not by the adoption of any such arbitrary measures that a remedy can be found for the existing native labour shortage. On the contrary the Committee has endeavoured to take into account the actually existing conditions and the proposals which they have put forward, and " have had for their aim the effective development of a policy of order and goodwill, directed in detail to the progressive improvement of conditions of life in the Native Reserves and to the progressive improvement and expansion of the supply of native labour throughout the country. "

Agricultural " Wage Movements " and Strikes in Germany

In its latest report[1], which covers the years 1923 to 1925, the German Union of Agricultural Workers *(Deutscher Landarbeiter-Verband*, Social-Democratic) has given the history of efforts to improve the position of land workers in Germany by the help of " wage movements " and strikes[2].

In 1923, the last inflation year and the year of by far the most violent fluctuations of the currency, the Union was obliged to concentrate more definitely than ever before on efforts to get wages to keep pace with the constantly declining value of money. To do this proved impossible; the dificulties could only be overcome in part. When stabilisation took place towards the end of 1923 there was therefore a big work waiting, to procure " wage rates which should correspond

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[1] Deutscher Landarbeiter-Verband: *Bericht der Verbandsvorstandes über die Verbandsarbeit in den Jahren 1923 bis 1925*; *Niederschrift von der 4. Generalversammlung des Deutschen Landarbeiterverbandes, 15. bis 18. Marz 1926.* Schriften des Deutschen Landarbeiterverbandes, No. 17. Berlin, 1926, 183 pp. Cf. in particular pp. 27-35. Of the other interesting information contained in this report reference may specially be made to the very detailed chapter on wages and working hours in German agriculture and forestry.

[2] The term " wage movement " *(Lohnbewegung)* is used to cover any initiative, from the side either of employers' or of workers' organisations, tending to modify labour conditions; e.g. a movement to obtain shorter hours of work, even if no change in wages is contemplated.

to the changed conditions". Though the Union does not consider this purpose yet accomplished, the consequence of more stable economic conditions has been a constant decrease in the number of wage movements, and especially of strikes, during the period reported on.

Statistics of wage movements and strikes and of the causes of wage movements from 1923 to 1925 are given below in tables I and II.

TABLE I. WAGE MOVEMENTS AND STRIKES, 1923-1925

Year	Wage movements not involving a stoppage of work			Strikes		
	Number	Undertakings concerned	Workers concerned	Number	Undertakings concerned	Workers concerned
1923	3,022	239,079	1,714,993	12	36,814	281,714
1924	492	277,798	2,371,719	9	2,227	24,319
1925	345	196,295	1,711,439	3	393	4,681

TABLE II. CAUSE OF WAGE MOVEMENTS, 1923-1925

Year	Demands of workers				Demands of employers			
	Shorter hours	Higher wages	Shorter hours and higher wages	Other demands	Longer hours	Lower wages	Longer hours and lower wages	Other demands
1923	184	2,189	634	15	—	—	—	—
1924	—	—	490	—	—	1	—	1
1925	2	248	7	61	—	2	10	15

In 1924 41 per cent., and in 1925 47 per cent., of the disputes were settled with the help of conciliation machinery; the remainder were settled by direct negotiations between employers and workers or their organisations.

TABLE III. METHODS OF SETTLEMENT OF DISPUTES, 1924 and 1925

Year	Total wage movements	Direct negotiation between		Conciliation machinery
		Employers and workers	Employers' and workers' organisations	
1924	492	21	270	201
1925	345	2	182	161

The advantages obtained by the workers by means of wage movements are shown in table IV.

TABLE IV. RESULTS OF WAGE MOVEMENTS, 1924 AND 1925

Year	Shorter hours		Higher wages					
			Men		Women		Total	
	Workers affected	Total weekly reduction	Workers affected	Total weekly increase	Workers affected	Total weekly increase	Workers affected	Total weekly increase
		Hrs.		Mks.		Mks.		Mks.
1924	55,000	70,500	1,307,296	2,262,639	1,044,436	1,807,678	2,351,732	4,070,317
1925	292,973	11,603	860,051	1,707,338	719,126	110,965	1,579,177	1,818,303

In addition to the results shown in this table the report states that in 1925 the Union succeeded in preventing prolongations of working hours amounting to 486,000 hours per week for 131,000 persons and reductions of wages amounting to a weekly total of 149,000 marks for 132,000 persons.

The number of workers affected is more than ten times the average membership of the Union. It is especially interesting to see the number of women workers who have been affected by the wage movements undertaken by the Union, although, at the end of 1925, of 167,000 members only 32,000 were women.

The biggest strike during the whole period was the Silesian strike in the spring of 1923, to be attributed to the currency conditions noted above. Towards the end of May 1923 discussions were held between workers and employers in agriculture in the province of Silesia, where agricultural wages have always been the lowest. The discussions, however, did not give satisfactory results to the workers and a strike therefore began in various districts without the authorisation of the Union. On 6 June 1923 about 50,000 agricultural workers in 17 districts were on strike. The organisation, finding itself powerless to oppose the strike, took the lead of the movement and, as continued negotiations with the employers gave no results, declared a general strike for all Silesian land workers. On 14 June 90,000 workers were taking

part in the strike; later, the employers stated the number of strikers to be 120,000.

It was not possible to give the strikers much financial support. In spite of this, however, the strike lasted four weeks; then the arbitration award given under the chairmanship of a representative of the Federal Ministry of Labour finished the strike. The report expresses the opinion that "the strike was not lost". This opinion is based on the fact that an addendum to the existing collective agreement was obtained, giving some advantages to the workers, and also on the fact that during the progress of the strike the employers granted the workers wage increases on three occasions. It would have been impossible under the changing economic conditions of those days to sum up a profit and loss balance for such a struggle.

The report itself calls this strike a "disorderly" strike (*ein wilder Streik*), one of the childish ailments of the organisation of land workers. In East Prussia also some "disorderly" strikes took place in 1923, caused by low wages and the demand of the employers for longer working hours without additional compensation. These strikes were followed by a big strike in 1924. During the negotiations at the beginning of this year the employers demanded a prolongation of 130 hours to the annual number of working hours as settled by collective agreement[1], and also a reduction of the wages paid in kind. Again, as in the previous year in Silesia, the workers went on strike without the authorisation of the Union, and this organisation once more found itself forced to place itself at the head of a movement it had not originated. This fight, too, was terminated by an arbitral award; the collective agreement made between the employers and the Christian Land Workers' Union (*Zentralverband der Landarbeiter*), which had accepted the demands of the employers as described above, was declared binding for the Social-Democratic Union of Agricultural Workers. The report here stresses the importance of getting the two Unions to act together for their common interests.

In Saxony several local strikes took place during the years 1924 and 1925, and nearly always brought advantages to the workers. The organisation of agricultural employers in this State has lately affiliated to the Collective Agreements Board (*Tarifgemeinschaft*) for Mid-Germany.

[1] Within the terms of the Provisional Federal Agricultural Labour Code of 1919.

The Housing of Agricultural Workers in Germany[1]

The question of the housing of agricultural workers in Germany is intimately connected with that of the employment of alien seasonal workers. The employment of alien seasonal workers has been known in Germany for decades, but took on much larger proportions with the spread of beet cultivation in the middle of the nineteenth century. The number of such alien immigrant workers (generally Polish and Ruthenian) is estimated at 400,000 before the war. As there were, according to the census of 1907, 1,045,000 German nationals employed in agriculture (apart from smallholders doing paid seasonal work), this means that almost two-sevenths of the total agricultural labour force in Germany before the war was foreign.

Since the war it has been the definite policy of the German Government to cut down year by year the number of alien workers admitted into the country. Apart from any political reasons, the existence of over a million unemployed persons in Germany is advanced as justification for the systematic carrying out of this restriction policy. The restriction policy is based on a well-established system of regulation of immigration and licensing. The number of alien immigrant agricultural workers admitted in 1925 was restricted to 148,600, and for 1926 to 130,000; for 1927 it is to be further cut down to 100,000, i.e. scarcely one quarter of what it was estimated to be before the war. Actually it is computed that during 1926 the quota laid down will not have been entirely used up and that only 125,000 such workers will have entered Germany.

It is a definite part of the restriction policy to replace the alien workers by national workers in such a way as to cause the least possible disturbance to agriculture. Where labour is required in considerable quantities, i.e. where it is truly seasonal, it would appear almost impossible at the present time to do without immigrants, but where it is required for longer periods and on smaller farms there is, in the opinion of the authorities, less difficulty in replacing it by national labour. Thus the practice now obtains of allocating immigrant seasonal labour principally to the large beet-growing exploitations, and refusing it to the smaller farms which grow potatoes and grains in addition to beets, inasmuch as here the operations are less concentrated at a particular moment of the year and are also, as a rule, on a somewhat smaller

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[1] Sources:
Reichsarbeitsblatt, 24 Aug. 1926, p. 565*.
Der öffentliche Arbeitsnachweis, Vol. III, No. 6, Sept. 1926, pp. 382-390.
Industrie- u. Handelszeitung, Vol. VII, No. 233, 6 Oct. 1926.
Vorwärts, 11 Sept. 1926, evening edition.
For an analysis of a previous article on the same subject in the *Reichsarbeitsblatt* cf. *International Labour Review*, Vol. XII, No. 1, July 1925, pp. 83-87.

scale; in fact, no farmer who cannot put in a demand for a gang of at least five workers together can hope to obtain permission to employ alien labour. The policy is interesting from the social point of view as illustrating the principle that one of the most practical preventives against the evil of rush seasonal work is the establishment of balanced or diversified cultivations[1].

The principal difficulty in replacing alien by national labour in Germany is due to housing. The alien labour hitherto employed, just because it was undomiciled and seasonal, was generally housed in barrack-like dwellings, which in many cases left much to be desired in the way of comfort, sanitation, and even weather-proof condition. Many employers have stated their inability to employ national labour because they could not accommodate it. In general, the question of rural housing is as pressing in Germany as in other European countries. A rural building programme, subsidised from the funds allotted for productive unemployment relief, has been carried on since 7 January 1921. Up to 10 March 1925 over 18,000 rural dwellings had been constructed. A considerable impulse is now to be given to this programme by the allocation of large funds for the purpose from the general budget of the state. The funds to be allotted amount to 30 million marks, and a decision has been taken whereby the administrators of the national estates, hitherto excluded from the benefits of the productive unemployment relief allocation, can share in the funds now available. As these estates employ alien labour there has been a certain anomaly in excluding them from the rural housing policy, if such rural housing is to be definitely brought into connection with the replacing of aliens by national labour.

Under the present regulations two types of housing may be constructed, " industrial dwellings ", i.e. dwellings built by the employer for the housing of his workers and controlled by him, and " workers' dwellings ", i.e. dwellings built by individual workers and owned by them. The funds now made available are to cover both types of building, and the grant per year is raised so that it can now reach as much as 75 per cent. of the total building cost of an industrial dwelling. Similarly the loan issued to an individual worker to enable him to build his own house is now repayable in thirty years instead of in ten, or exceptionally twenty, years as heretofore. Employers applying for an allocation of this fund must show that the construction of the contemplated dwellings will lead to the discharge of a certain number of alien workers and their replacement by domiciled national labour.

It is estimated that at an average cost of 4,000 marks per dwelling the funds allocated will permit of the erection of 15,000 new rural dwellings. This will mean the replacement by national labour of some-

[1] Incidentally attention may be drawn to an interesting non technical note in the *Journal of the Ministry of Agriculture* (England and Wales), Oct. 1926, p. 671 *et seq.*, in which the Ministry announce the acquisition of patents for England and Ireland and the pursuit of study on the de Vecchis sugar-beet process. This process of drying the beet before extraction of the sugar content would have the important economic effect of enabling work on certain processes to be spread over the year instead of having to be concentrated in a hundred days or so.

thing between 36,000 and 40,000 alien workers. Attention is drawn to the fact that the building of rural dwellings can already be proved statistically to have had a direct influence on the restriction of alien labour. Thus, up to 31 March 1926 about 7,000 new rural dwellings had been constructed in East Prussia and the number of alien agricultural workers had fallen from about 22,000 before the war to 8,000 in 1926; in contrast to Mecklenburg-Schwerin, where only 458 dwellings had been constructed and the 27,000 alien workers of the pre-war period had only been brought down to 15,800.

The practicability of encouraging labour at present unemployed in Germany to go on the land, provided that proper dwelling accommodation is constructed, is greatly increased by the fact that much of this unemployed labour has come from the land within the last few years. The rural exodus from the country to the town was extraordinarily intensified as the result of war conditions, and many of those who will occupy the new dwellings are persons who have lived all their lives in the country and are accustomed to agricultural employment. Their freedom of movement and freedom to seek work as secured to them under the German Constitution is, in practice, made of no effect if they cannot find a place in which to live. From the workers' point of view *Vorwärts* points out that the provision of industrial dwellings is not entirely satisfactory in this respect. An industrial dwelling is a " tied " cottage, and the worker does not secure an independent home from which he is in a position to make a free bargain with an employer. Termination of the employment contract with the farmer means loss, after the lapse of a certain period of grace, of the right to the dwelling provided by the farmer. *Vorwärts* states that it is important to encourage the construction of dwellings of other types, namely, those owned by the worker himself. But even this, in the opinion of the journal, is by no means the perfect solution for the worker, who has sunk all his savings in the construction of a dwelling and is burdened with a considerable debt towards the state — even if, as is the case, he pays no interest on it — and thus is not free to move about the country according to his employment requirements. The ideal advanced by the paper is the construction of workers' rural villages, self-administered; apparently some form of collective property holding with sublets to individual workers is indicated. In Central Europe, where historically and economically so much stress is laid on small property holding and on the educative advantages of ownership, based on ownership of a cottage, the implied criticism may be noted as illustrating the point of view of a workers' group in Germany. Incidentally it may be remarked that the writer in the *Reichsarbeitsblatt* denies that there is any intention to favour the construction of industrial dwellings rather than the construction of separate cottages; but he accepts the point of view, which is the point of view criticised by *Vorwärts*, that the worker's ownership of his home is a step upwards on the social ladder.

STATISTICS

Employment and Prices

In the tables below are given for various countries the most recent statistics of employment and unemployment and of the cost of living and retail prices in comparison with those for previous dates.

Employment and Unemployment

Table I giving unemployment statistics shows for certain countries the percentage of workers unemployed. In some cases these percentages are based on data compiled by the trade unions in respect of their members, while in other cases they refer to the workers covered by unemployment insurance laws. For some countries for which no such data are available information is given as to the numbers registered at various dates at the employment exchanges as unemployed or the number of unemployed workers who have received assistance. Table II gives index numbers of employment for certain countries.

In the *Review* for July 1924 and later months an outline was given of the methods by which the statistics given in the tables are compiled, together with particulars of the original sources in which they are published.

TABLE I. STATISTICS OF UNEMPLOYMENT

Date (end of month)	Germany					Australia		Belgium			
	Trade unionists					Trade unionists		Unemployment insurance societies			
	Wholly unemployed		Partially unemployed		Number unemployed in receipt of benefit	Number unemployed	Per cent.	Wholly unemployed		Partially unemployed	
	Number	Per cent.	Number	Per cent.				Number	Per cent.	Number	Per cent.
1926											
Jan.	815,434	22.6	818,637	22.6	2,030,646	*	*	16,159	2.7	32,017	5.4
Feb.	786,263	22.0	771,405	21.6	2,055,928	*	*	9,616	1.6	18,209	3.1
March	727,312	21.4	736,649	21.7	1,942,011	34,161	8.2	8,489	1.4	16,573	2.8
April	655,537	18.6	673,993	19.1	1,781,152	*	*	7,395	1.2	11,803	2.0
May	639,751	18.1	641,780	18.2	1,744,126	*	*	6,075	1.1	12,643	2.1
June	627,196	18.1	591 536	17.1	1,740,754	24,920	6.7	5,200	0.9	13.148	2.2
July	599,617	17.7	563.823	16.6	1,652,281	*	*	5.158	0.9	10,233	1.7
Aug.	567,541	16.7	511,685	15.0	1,548,138	*	*	7,268	1.2	16,530	2.8
Sept.	513,864	15.2	427,380	12.7	1,394,062	32,871	7.6	6,818	1.1	14,821	2.5
Oct.	476,952	14.2	343,303	10.2	1,308,293	*	*	8,088	1.4	13.295	2.2
Nov.	484,978	14.2	284,774	8.3	1,369,768	*	*	8.217	1.4	14,907	2.5
Dec.	572,653	16.7	249,628	7.3	1,748,597	25,351	5.7	15,804	2.6	17,889	3.0
1927											
Jan.	585,687	16.5	234,368	6.6	1,827,200	*	*	15,920	2.6	31,288	5.1
Feb.	559,621	15.5	210,724	5.8	1,695,504	*	*	13,813[1]	2.3[1]	22,261[1]	3.6[1]
March	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Number on which latest percentages are based	,064,388				*	441,560		610,242			

[1] Provisional figures.

The sign * signifies "no figures published". The sign — signifies "figures not yet received".

TABLE I *(cont.)*

Date (end of month)	Austria	Canada		Denmark		Estonia	Finland	France
	Compulsory insurance	Trade unionists		Trade union unemployment funds				
	Number unemployed in receipt of benefit	Number unemployed	Per cent.	Number unemployed	Per cent.	Number unemployed remaining on live register	Number of unemployed registered	Number unemployed in receipt of benefit
1926								
Jan.	231,361	11,906[1]	8.1	81,100[1]	29.8	3,543	3,832	547
Feb.	228,763	11,993[1]	8.1	74,100[1]	27.3	2,444	3,462	713
March	202,394	11,069	7.3	57,700[1]	21.2	1,916	2,222	543
April	173,115	11,093	7.3	44,700[1]	16.5	2,249	1,961	442
May	154,821	7,442	4.9	39,900[1]	14.7	1,839	1,273	386
June	150,981	5,965	4.1	42,600[1]	15.6	1,051	924	489
July	152,495	3,226[1]	2.3	45,800[1]	16.8	893	949	342
Aug.	151,054	3,384[1]	2.5	46,900[1]	16.8	731	1,212	369
Sept.	148,111	4,837	3.3	45,300[1]	16.3	811	1,325	335
Oct.	151,183	3,929[1]	2.6	49,800[1]	18.3	2,309	1,813	429
Nov.	168,757	7,032[1]	4.7	59,800[1]	22.4	4,157	2,330	571
Dec.	205,350	9,349	5.9	88,700[1]	32.2	3,807	2,172	17,178
1927								
Jan.	235,464	—	6.4	87,100[1]	31.4	4,841	3,633	52,275
Feb.	244,257	—	6.5	87,100[1]	31 7	—	3,052	80,941
March	—	—	—	72,900[1]	26.5	—	—	70,381
Number on which latest percentages are based	•	157,701		274,937		•	•	•

TABLE I *(cont.)*

Date (end of month)	Great Britain and Northern Ireland				Hungary		Irish Free State		Italy	
	Trade unionists		Compulsory insurance		Trade unionists		Compulsory insurance		Number of unemployed registered	
	Number unemployed	Per cent.	Number unemployed	Per cent.	Number unemployed	Per cent.	Number unemployed	Per cent.	Wholly unempl.	Partially unempl.
1926										
Jan.	103,051	10.6	1,317,535	11.0	28,378	17.4	38.161	15.0	156,139	9,284
Feb.	101,870	10.4	1,247,823	10.4	29,135	18.7	38.670	15.2	125,803	8,016
March	99,271	10.1	1,171,136	9.8	29,218	19.1	34.331	13.5	109,471	8,333
April	•	10.0	1,093,829	9.1	28,776	18.8	32,935	13.0	98,216	6,793
May	109,947	13.2	1,719,369	14.3	27,598	18.5	32,668	12.8	98 490	8,600
June	107,597	12.9	1,751,133	14.6	25,558	16.7	31,248	12.3	83,264	6,650
July	108,030	13.2	1,737 260	14.6	24,041	15.7	27,740	11.3	79,678	26,756
Aug.	110,520	13.3	1,684,507	14.2	22,756	15.0	25,390	10.3	83.090	26,634
Sept.	112,782	13.6	1,648,322	13.9	19,849	13.1	25,063	10.2	89,434	14,519
Oct.	112,195	13.6	1,636,886	13.6	18,680	12.4	25,499	10.4	112,922	10 839
Nov.	108,202	13.2	1,630,142	13.5	18,576	12.3	26,984	11.0	148,821	6 618
Dec.	97,671	12.2	1,431,840	11.9	20,712	13.0	27,014	11.0	181,493	12,216
1927										
Jan.	•	•	1,451,103	1.21	20,420	13.4	29,046	11.8	225,346	63,716
Feb.	•	•	1,315,444	10.9	19,542	12 8	28,704	11.7	259,059	53.113
March	•	•	1,187,782	9.9	—	—	27,105	11.0	—	—
Number on which latest percentages are based	801,878		12,041,000		153,000		246,134		•	

[1] Approximate figures. [2] Provisional figures.
The sign • signifies " no figures published ". The sign — signifies " figures not yet received ".

TABLE I (*cont.*)

Date (end of month)	Latvia	Norway		New Zealand		Netherlands	
	Number unemployed remaining on live register	Trade unionists (10 unions)		Trade unionists		Unemployment insurance societies	
		Number unemployed	Per cent.	Number unemployed	Per cent.	Number unemployed	Per cent.
1926							
Jan.	4,990	9,066	25.5	*	*	49,633	17 7
Feb.	4,702	8,923	25.0	2,357	5.0	28,999	10.5
March	3,659	9,237	25.9	*	*	22,338	7.9
April	2,000	9,212	26.0	*	*	18,414	6.5
May	1,383	8,316	23.7	3,049	6.6	17,904	6.3
June	936	7,751	22.1	*	*	16,983	5.9
July	722	7,137	20.4	*	*	19,683	6.9
Aug.	897	7,462	21.4	3,912	8.3	20,805	7.2
Sept.	932	7,719	22.3	*	*	20,695	7,2
Oct.	2,430	8,425	24.4	*	*	21,341	7.4
Nov.	5,149	—	25.0	3,712	6.7	25,899	8.9
Dec.	5,234	—	29.6	*	*	35,689	12.1
1927							
Jan.	5,026	—	30.2	*	*	41,620[1]	14.4[1]
Feb.	4,596	—	—	—	—	—	—
March	4,028	—	—	—	—	—	—
Number on which latest percentages are based	*	34,459		47,147		289,679[1]	

TABLE I (*cont.*)

Date (end of month)	Poland	Russia	Sweden		Switzerland		Czechoslovakia	
	Number unemployed registered	Number unemployed remaining on live register	Trade unionists		Number wholly unemployed registered	Unemployment funds	Trade union insurance funds	
			Number unemployed	Per cent.		Per cent. unemployed	Number unemployed in receipt of benefit	Per cent.
1926								
Jan.	359,810	988,000	34,601	15.7	20,525		22,738	2.1
Feb.	358,430	1,005,600	32,695	14.8	18,138		25,333	2.3
March	345,010	1,056,400	31,712	14.7	14,307	2.7	27,535	2.5
April	320,520	1,070,900	29,220	12.3	11,320	*	30,056	2.7
May	303,720	1,114,200	22,413	9.9	10,703	*	33,670	3.0
June	288,510	1.065,500	22,715	9.6	10,272	2.4	40,034	3.4
July	263,540	1,030,100	20,206	8.6	11,013	*	46,052	4.1
Aug.	241,790	1,023,700	19,511	8.3	11,818	*	46,129	4.0
Sept.	213,690	1,070,990	22,114	9.1	12,803	2.8	42,601	3.7
Oct.	196,586	1,163,400	28,390	11.4	14,253	*	35,948	3.1
Nov.	200,570	1,254,300	33,193	13.0	16,366	*	29,020	2.5
Dec.	236,060	1,289,600	47,614	19.1	17,900	5.6	29,295	2.5
1927								
Jan.	251,702	—	39,344	16.2	19,370	*	—	—
Feb.	—	—	39,772	15.5	19,201	*	—	—
March	—	—	—	—	13,568	—	—	—
Number on which latest percentages are based	*	*	257,375		*	178,975	1,159,667	

[1] Provisional figures.

The sign * signifies "no figures published". The sign — signifies "figures not yet received".

TABLE II. STATISTICS OF EMPLOYMENT

Date (end of month)	Germany[1]	Canada[1]	Estonia	United States	Switzerland
	Index number of employment				
	Membership of sickness funds in Dec. 1921 = 100	Number employed on 17 Jan. 1920 = 100	Number employed in preceding month = 100	Average number employed in 1923 = 100	Number employed in Sept. 1924 = 100
1926					
Jan.	93.4	90.7	100.0	92.3	*
Feb.	93.4	91.5	101.2	93.3	*
March	94.3	91.4	99.6	93.7	95.2
April	97.7	94.3	97.9	92.8	*
May	98.8	101.0	106.0	91.7	*
June	98.9	103.7	100.9	91.3	96.5
July	99.2	104.2	—	89.8	*
Aug.	99.8	104.9	—	90.7	*
Sept.	100.4	105.2	—	92.2	95.3
Oct.	101.2	102.8	—	92 5	*
Nov.	101.2	101 1	—	91.4	*
Dec.	96.4	94.8	—	90.9	93.6
1927					
Jan.	95.2	95.4	—	89.4	*
Feb.	—	96,3	—	91.0	*
March	—	—	—	—	—
Number of persons on which latest figures are based	12,056,316	795,163	32.874	3,009,982	174,484

[1] The figures relate to the 1st of the following month.

The sign * signifies "no figures published". The sign — signifies "figures not yet received".

Cost of Living and Retail Prices

Tables I to V give for a number of countries index numbers of the cost of living, food, clothing, heating and lighting, and rent. The sources and methods of compilation of the statistics are given in the *Review* for July 1924 and later months.

TABLE I. COST-OF-LIVING INDEX NUMBERS

(Base, as far as possible, July 1914 = 100)

Country	South Africa (Union)	Germany	Australia	Austria [1]	Belgium [2]	Bulgaria	Canada	Chile [2]	Denmark	Danzig	Egypt
Towns and localities	9	72	6	Vienna	59	12	60	Chile	100	Danzig	Cairo
1926											
Mar.	131	138	158	98	137	2796	153	179	*	132	163
April	131	140	*	98	140	2726	152	179	*	134	162
May	132	140	*	97	147	2888	150	181	*	133	161
June	131	140	162	99	155	2793	150	183	*	133	159
July	130	142	*	98	174	2790	150	190	184	137	159
Aug.	130	142	*	99	182	2712	149	192	*	135	161
Sept.	130	142	159	99	179	2677	148	187	*	135	160
Oct.	131	142	*	99	188	2662	150	186	*	135	161
Nov.	131	144	*	99	196	2693	151	184	*	136	156
Dec.	129	144	—	100	199	2672	152	182	*	139	156
1927 Jan.	130	145	*	101	202	—	151	176	181	136	155
Feb.	130	145	*	100	204	—	150	176	*	126	—
	—	145	—	—	200	—	—	—	*	136	—

Country	Estonia [1]	United States [3]	Finland	France	Great Britain	Greece	Hungary [5]	India	Irish Free State	Italy	Latvia	Lithuania [2]
Towns and localities	Tallinn	32	21	Paris	630	Athens	Budapest	Bombay	105	Milan	Riga	84
1926												
Mar.	134	*	1172	451	168	1706	14,728	153	*	654	118	142
April	136	*	1163	*	167	1731	14,512	153	180	642	117	140
May	136	*	1159	*	168	1741	14,623	155	*	652	119	141
June	136	175	1175	485	170	1791	14,704	157	*	650	119	141
July	136	*	1183	*	170	1808	14,823	155	182	649	118	140
Aug.	135	*	1213	*	172	1818	14,538	155	*	652	115	139
Sept.	130	*	1203	539	174	1833	14,593	155	*	647	112	139
Oct.	129	*	1197	*	179	1862	14,883	154	189	672	112	139
Nov	129	*	1193	*	179	1895	15,293	156	*	657	111	141
Dec.	130	176	1197	545	175	1889	15,204	156	*	657	114	143
1927 Jan.	132	*	1187	*	172	—	106[6]	155	182	655	—	142
Feb.	132	*	1189	*	171	—	108	155	*	667	—	141
March	130	*	1183	524	165	—	—	153	*	—	—	—

Country	Luxemburg	Norway	New Zealand	Netherlands [7]	Peru [2]	Poland	Rumania	Russia [3]	Sweden	Switzerland	Czechoslovakia
Towns and localities	Luxemburg	31	4	Amsterdam	Lima	Warsaw	Whole country	229	49	33	Prague
1926											
Mar.	527	227	*	169	196	169	3310	229	173	163	687
April	546	*	*	*	193	177	3327	239	*	162	685
May	578	*	163	*	195	185	3370	233	*	162	692
June	609	221	*	171	197	184	3436	227	172	162	693
July	686	*	*	*	194	178	3340	228	*	162	718
Aug.	688	*	163	*	195	182	3455	222	*	161	722
Sept.	711	217	*	164	190	189	3460	220	171	161	722
Oct.	727	*	*	*	188	193	3600	222	*	161	726
Nov	734	*	162	*	189	197	3700	224	*	161	734
Dec.	746	213	*	168	189	199	3760	223	171	161	735
1927 Jan.	756	210	*	*	189	202	—	227	*	160	741
Feb.	758	208	162	*	193	201	3758	—	*	160	740
March	961	203	—	—	187	200	—	—	170	159	738

[1] 1925 = 100. [2] 1921 = 100. [3] 1913 = 100. [4] 1922 = 100. [5] 1913 = 1. [6] New series in pengö.
[7] 1911-1913 = 100. The sign * signifies "no figures published". The sign — signifies "figures not yet received".

TABLE II. FOOD INDEX NUMBERS

(Base, as far as possible, July 1914 = 100)

Country	South Africa (Union)	Germany	Australia	Austria [1]	Belgium [2]	Bulgaria	Canada	Denmark	Egypt	Spain	Estonia [3]
Towns and localities	9	72	30	Vienna	59	12	60	100	Cairo	Madrid	Tallinn
1926								*			
Mar.	118	141	159	96	138	2799	153	*	161	185	136
April	119	142	*	96	142	2731	152	*	161	187	139
May	119	142	*	95	152	2909	149	*	160	183	139
June	118	143	162	98	161	2808	149	*	157	183	139
July	117	145	*	97	185	2803	150	159	158	186	139
Aug.	117	146	*	98	193	2720	147	*	159	178	138
Sept.	117	150	155	98	186	2680	147	*	157	187	128
Oct.	120	145	*	98	197	2662	148	*	160	190	127
Nov.	119	148	*	99	206	2693	151	*	157	191	127
Dec.	117	150	158	100	208	2669	153	*	154	193	128
1927 Jan.	116	151	*	100	208	—	151	156	153	196	131
Feb.	117	152	*	100	212	—	149	*	—	190	132
March	—	151	—	—	205	—	—	*	—	—	129

Country	United States	Finland	France	Great Britain	Greece	Hungary [4]	India	Irish Free State	Italy
Towns and localities	51	21	Paris	630	Athens	Budapest	Bombay	105	Milan
1926									
Mar.	156	1100	497	159	1805	16,668	150	*	654
April	159	1085	503	158	1821	16,322	150	175	645
May	157	1078	522	158	1817	16,122	152	*	664
June	156	1090	544	161	1870	16,298	155	*	657
July	153	1105	574	161	1849	16,546	153	174	654
Aug.	152	1153	587	162	1871	15,997	152	*	660
Sept.	155	1137	590	163	1890	16,189	153	*	652
Oct.	156	1126	624	169	1933	16,431	152	178	654
Nov.	158	1114	628	169	1986	16,783	154	*	630
Dec.	158	1110	599	167	1973	16,622	155	*	631
1927 Jan.	156	1092	592	164	—	117 [5]	152	178	625
Feb.	152	1095	585	162	—	121	152	*	642
March	—	1086	581	155	—	—	151	*	—

Country	Latvia	Norway	New Zealand	Peru [6]	Poland	Russia [6]	Sweden	Switzerland	Czechoslovakia
Towns and localities	Riga	31	4	Lima	Warsaw	229	49	33	Prague
1926									
Mar.	103	205	152	171	189	212	158	161	767
April	101	198	151	166	204	225	157	161	761
May	103	195	151	169	214	218	156	159	774
June	103	194	151	172	213	212	156	159	775
July	103	198	149	172	207	213	156	159	808
Aug.	97	196	149	174	213	204	155	157	817
Sept.	94	193	148	167	227	200	156	158	816
Oct.	92	191	147	164	232	—	155	160	823
Nov.	91	186	146	166	244	—	155	159	837
Dec.	94	184	149	167	247	—	155	159	840
1927 Jan.	—	180	148	165	247	—	153	158	849
Feb.	—	177	146	173	248	—	150	157	848
March	—	173	—	169	243	—	149	156	844

[1] 1925 = 100. 1921 = 100. [3] 1922 = 100. [4] 1913 = 1 [5] New series in pengö [6] 1913 = 100
The sign * signifies " no figures published ". The sign — signifies " figures not yet received ".

Country	Germany	Austria[1]	Belgium[2]	Canada	Denmark	Spain	Estonia[3]	United States	Finland	France	Great Britain	Hungary[4]	India	Irish Free State	Italy	Latvia	Norway	New Zealand	Poland	Russia[6]	Sweden	Switzerland	Czechoslovakia
Towns and localities	72	Vienna	59	60	100	Madrid	Tallinn	32	21	Paris	630	Budapest	Bombay	105	Milan	Riga	31	4	Warsaw	229	49	33	Prague
TABLE III. CLOTHING INDEX NUMBERS *(Base, as far as possible, July 1914 = 100)*																							
1926 Mar.	168	99	144	•	•	•	119	•	1044	524	223	18,552	175	•	702	122	213	•	251	299	188	179	994
April	167	99	145	•	•	•	119	•	1049	•	223	18,502	170	205	702	122	•	•	251	302	•	172	994
May	165	99	150	•	•	•	119	•	1049	•	223	18,273	162	•	691	122	•	156	272	303	•	172	994
June	164	99	155	•	•	•	118	168	1047	577	220	18,273	160	•	692	122	207	•	272	301	187	172	994
July	163	99	166	•	210	•	118	•	1044	•	220	18,273	160	205	692	122	•	•	254	300	•	172	994
Aug.	161	99	172	•	•	•	118	•	1039	•	220	18,273	160	•	692	122	•	154	254	298	•	172	994
Sept.	160	98	178	•	•	•	118	•	1039	635	220	17,915	159	•	692	122	200	•	256	299	184	172	994
Oct.	160	98	186	•	•	•	118	•	1037	•	218	17,915	156	205	711	122	•	•	256	—	•	166	982
Nov.	158	98	191	•	•	•	118	•	1035	•	218	17,915	148	•	709	122	•	154	256	—	•	166	982
Dec.	158	98	199	•	•	•	118	167	1035	616	218	17,915	143	•	709	122	191	•	256	—	182	166	982
1927 Jan.	157	98	203	•	196	•	116	•	1035	•	215	124[5]	148	—	705	—	•	•	256	—	•	166	975
Feb.	156	97	207	•	•	•	116	•	1035	•	215	124	—	•	705	—	•	—	252	—	•	166	975
Mar.	—	—	210	•	•	•	116	•	1035	565	215	—	—	•	—	—	—	•	262	—	180	166	975
TABLE IV. HEATING AND LIGHTING INDEX NUMBERS *(Base, as far as possible, July 1914 = 100)*																							
1926 Mar.	143	100	116	179	•	168	92	•	1248	447	185	17 926	165	•	505	367	208	•	165	234	170	147	805
April	142	99	116	180	•	169	92	•	1248	•	185	17,674	164	195	505	367	•	•	160	238	170	146	805
May	140	99	118	177	•	171	92	•	1250	•	190	17,674	164	•	505	367	•	176	161	226	167	145	805
June	140	97	130	176	•	176	92	181	1254	452	195	17,590	164	•	512	367	201	•	160	214	168	145	805
July	141	99	144	175	215	177	88	•	1238	•	200	17,506	164	234	512	367	•	•	158	217	167	145	805
Aug.	141	100	163	175	•	174	92	•	1242	•	215	17,506	164	•	512	367	•	177	176	226	166	144	805
Sept.	143	100	168	176	•	177	95	•	1257	541	230	17,506	164	•	512	367	208	•	182	233	166	144	810
Oct.	144	103	179	176	•	172	95	•	1276	•	255	18,933	164	293	565	358	•	•	196	—	170	145	814
Nov.	144	105	197	177	•	182	94	•	1349	•	250	19,394	166	•	565	359	•	177	188	—	188	146	814
Dec.	144	105	206	176	•	189	96	188	1389	577	215	19,394	166	•	565	110	237	•	188	—	186	146	814
1927 Jan.	145	107	204	—	230	180	100	•	1404	•	210	131[5]	166	—	627	—	•	•	192	—	184	146	814
Feb.	145	106	197	—	•	—	98	•	1406	•	208	129	—	•	661	—	•	—	189	—	181	144	814
Mar.	—	—	189	—	•	—	98	•	1408	570	190	—	—	•	—	—	—	•	187	—	181	144	814
TABLE V. RENT INDEX NUMBERS *(Base, as far as possible, July 1914 = 100)*																							
1926 Mar.	91	105	153	143	•	•	175	•	1266	220	148	6,960	172	•	477	80	179	•	72	•	188	163	250
April	97	105	153	142	•	•	175	•	1266	•	149	6,960	172	127	477	80	•	•	76	•	•	163	256
May	99	109	154	143	•	•	175	•	1266	•	149	7,975	172	•	477	80	•	178	76	•	•	167	256
June	100	118	155	143	•	•	175	165	1334	250	150	7,975	172	•	477	80	179	•	76	•	188	167	256
July	104	118	158	143	185	•	175	•	1334	•	150	7,975	172	127	477	80	•	•	76	•	•	167	256
Aug.	105	118	162	142	•	•	175	•	1334	•	150	7,975	172	•	477	80	•	182	76	•	•	167	256
Sept.	105	118	164	142	•	•	175	•	1334	250	150	7,975	172	•	477	70	179	•	76	•	188	167	256
Oct.	105	118	165	142	•	•	175	•	1334	•	150	7,975	172	127	638	78	•	•	76	•	•	167	256
Nov.	105	118	166	142	•	•	175	•	1334	•	150	8,700	172	•	638	78	•	182	76	•	•	167	256
Dec.	105	118	167	142	•	•	175	164	1334	250	151	8,700	172	•	638	78	179	•	76	•	188	167	256
1927 Jan.	105	118	180	—	185	•	175	•	1334	•	151	60[5]	172	—	638	—	•	•	92[7]	•	•	167	261
Feb.	105	121	181	—	•	•	175	•	1334	•	151	60	—	•	638	—	•	—	92	•	•	167	261
Mar.	—	—	182	—	•	•	175	•	1334	250	151	—	—	•	—	—	—	•	92	•	184	167	261

1925 = 100. [2] 1921 = 100. [3] 1922 = 100. [4] 1913 = 1. [5] New series in pengö. [6] 1913 = 100. [7] New series. The sign • signifies "no figures published". The sign — signifies "figures not yet received".

Wage Rates and Retail Prices in Various Cities

Tables I and II below, giving wage and price statistics in various cities at 1 February 1926 or the nearest date for which figures are available, are in continuation of corresponding tables published in the April number of the *Review*[1] which gave data generally for 1 January 1926. Information is given in each table for 10 cities, the figures generally having been supplied to the International Labour Office by the Department of the Central Government or of the Municipality which compiles these data. In certain cases figures have been taken from official publications.

Table I gives money wages, generally based on rates fixed by collective agreements, of typical categories of workers in the building, engineering, furniture-making, and printing and bookbinding industries. The figures are calculated on the basis of 48 hours' work, generally at ordinary time rates. So far as information is available, the amounts of cost-of-living bonuses and family allowances paid in certain cities are included. It should be pointed out that the data are not in all cases strictly comparable, as for some cities for which minimum rates are given the rates actually paid are somewhat higher. In the other cases the figures given are either the actual rates, or minimum rates which differ to a very small extent from the actual rates.

Table II gives the average retail prices of various articles of food which are of importance in the consumption of wage earners and their families.

[1] *International Labour Review*, Vol. XV, No. 4, April 1927, pp. 610-611.

TABLE I. MONEY WAGES CALCULATED ON THE BASIS OF 48 HOURS' WORK AT ORDINARY TIME RATES AT 1 FEBRUARY 1927

Industry and occupation	Amsterdam	Berlin	Brussels	Dublin[1]	Lodz	London	Madrid	Milan	Ottawa	Paris	Philadelphia[2]	Riga	Rome	Stockholm[3]	Sydney[4]	Tallinn	Vienna	Warsaw
Building Industry:	Gulden	R Mks.	Francs	s. d.	Zloty	s. d.	Pesetas	Lire	Dollars	Francs	Dollars	Lats	Lire	Kronor	s. d.	E. Mks.	Schillings	Zloty
Bricklayers or masons	38.40	60 48	174.24	90 0	48.00	85 0	66.00	192.00	48.00	240 00	78.00	40.92	184.80	76.80	123 4	1,680	68.16	51.84
Carpenters	38.40	60.96	182.40	88 0	48.00	85 0	78.00	201.60	36 00	240 00	60.00	30.96	184.80	76 80	131 11	1,614	72.96	50.40
Joiners	38.40	64 80	189.60	88 0	—	85 0	90.00	187.20	36 00	228.00	60.00	31.50	165.60	76.80	—	2,670	55.68	—
Plumbers	38.40	60 00	167.04	89 0	—	85 0	75 00	—	40.80	240 00	55.20	—	163.20	66.24	127 8	—	55.10	—
Painters (general)	36 00	57.60	157 44	86 0	—	81 0	78.00	211.20	31.20	240.00	48 00	34.74	235.20	81.60	118 0	—	76.80	51.36
Labourers (general)	31.20	46.08	126.24	64 0	24.00	65 0	42 00	124.80	19.20	180.00	40.80	22.32	139.20	69.60	113 0	912	52.80	31.68
Engineering Trades:																		
Fitters	32.16	—	190 56	75 1	36.96	62 2	72.00	166.86	28.80	225.60	48.00	30.96	165.60	—	114 6	—	—	40.80
Ironmoulders (hand)	32.16	—	177.28	75 1	36.96	62 2	72 00	177.90	28.32	228.00	46.50	27 54	165.60	—	122 9	1,614	—	40.80
Patternmakers	32.16	—	258.24	77 1	36.96	66 10	90 00	—	33.60	288.00	48.00	35 22	—	—	123 6	1,614	—	40.80
Turners	32.16	—	202.08	75 1	36 96	62 2	78 00	179.40	28.80	235 70	38.40	26 22	153 60	—	114 6	1,572	53.30	40.80
Labourers	25.68	31.20	144.48	55 2	23.04	43 3	42.00	136.20	19.20	153 60	31.20	19.02	112.80	—	96 0	1,188	35.52	26.40
Furniture Trades:																		
Cabinet-makers	32.64	49 44	194.40	88 0	—	84 0	72 00	200.16	27.60	288.00	—	33.42	228.00	57.60	111 0	1,740	52.80	—
Labourers	—	41.28	—	60 0	—	—	42.00	141.60	16.80	216.00	—	20.76	122.40	51.84	—	1,836	35.04	—
Printing and Bookbinding Trades:																		
Hand compositors (book and job)	35.04	48.00	254.00	84 0	76.80	89 0	73.50	262.80	35.20	288.00	43.20	48.36	188.00	60.55	122 2	2,628	62.50	114.24
Machine " "	39.36	57.00	266.00	84 0	109.44	96 0	81 00	283.20	35.20	306.00	45.17	68.34	235.00	66.40	135 3[5]	3,588	74.60	159.84
Machine minders	35.04	48.00	254.00	84 0	75.84	89 0	88 50	259.26	35.20	—	42.00	50 76	188.00	60.55	122 2	2,832	62.50	114.24
Bookbinders	35.04	44 16	256.00	84 0	75.84	80 0	70 50	262.80	34.00	—	41.00	49.74	175 00	55 20	103 8	2,094	49.25	100.32
Labourers	28.08	42.00	—	55 6	25.92	71 0[2]	48.00	176.82	—	—	—	28.26	157.00	49.60	—	1,608	43.50	57.12

[1] Figures for 1 January 1927. [2] Warehouse porters [3] Figures for 15 May 1926, except those for the engineering trades, which are for 1 October 1925. [4] For certain occupations the figures are minimum rates fixed by collective agreements and skilled workers are frequently paid at higher rates. [5] Figures for 30 June 1926. [6] Rates for linotype operators.

TABLE II. AVERAGE RETAIL PRICES[1] OF CERTAIN ARTICLES OF FOOD AT 1 FEBRUARY 1927

Commodity	Amsterdam	Berlin	Brussels[2]	Lodz	London	Madrid	Milan	Oslo[2]	Ottawa	Paris	Philadelphia[3]	Prague	Riga	Rome	Stockholm	Tallinn	Vienna[2]	Warsaw
	Gulden	R. Mks.	Francs	Zloty	Pence	Pesetas	Lire	Kroner	Cents	Francs	Cents	Koruny	Lats	Lire	Kronor	E. Mks.	Schillinge	Zloty
Bread																		
White	0.24	0.74	2.65	0.65	5.7	0.65	2.65	0.85	17.0	2.20	20.9	3.25	0.71	2.65	0.76	48.80	1.65	0.66
Black or rye	0.18	0.43	2.60	—	—	—	—	0.45	—	—	—	2.96	0.30	—	0.64	19.50	0 63	—
Flour (wheaten)	0.28	0.58	3.66	0.86	10.6	0.80	3.04	0.47	12.8	3.15	11.9	4.35	0.70	3.00	0.46	40.30	0.78	0.96
Butter																		
Fresh	2.50	4.00	31.91	6.40	48.3	5.00	23.33	3.95	99.7	27.70	138.3	25.77	4.01	23.00	—	268.60	6.80	7.30
Salt	—	3.70	29.75	—	48.1	3.20	—	—	—	—	—	—	3.46	11.00	3.40	229.10	—	—
Margarine	1.20	1.86	11.62	—	15.4	6.00	11.75	1.56	—	10.50	67.9	15.31	2.25	15.00	1.51	—	2.80	—
Beef (home produce)																		
Ribs	1.40	2.20	21.60	2.60	41.0	5.60	14.30	2.74	47.2	21.15	80.5	15.59	1.16	11.00	2.00	106.90	3.20	2.72
Thin flank	1.10		11.00		18.1	4.30	7.97	2.20	23.8	9.95	57.3	13.55		9.50	1.63	69.60		—
Beef (chilled or frozen)																		
Ribs	1.10	1.40	14.00	—	23.4	3.40	7.80	—	—	13.00	—	—	—	11.00	—	75.70	2.60	—
Thin flank	0.80		7.00	—	11.0	1.60	2.80	—	—	6.50	—	—	—	4.00	—	67.60		—
Mutton (home produce)																		
Leg	2.20	2.60	15.50	2.60	39.7	4.00	—	2.55	61.1	21.50	86.2	12.46	1.23	—	2.44	108.70	3.20	2.54
Breast	1.20	2.10	10.06		19.4	3.50	—	2.31	—	8.60				—	—	97.70		
Mutton (frozen)																		
Leg	—	—	13.00	—	26.7	—	—	1.75	—	16.50	—	—	—	—	—	119.70	—	—
Breast	—	—	3.50	—	11.3	—	—		—	5.60	—	—	—	—	—	110.60	—	—
Bacon	1.20	3.00	17.75	3.90	37.5	3.50	7.50	—	89.5	14.50	103.4	—	1.98	8.50	2.30	134.30	2.60	3.89
Potatoes	0.08	0.12	1.12	0.16	2.7	0.25	1.00	0.42	6.4	1.50	10.1	1.39	0.11	0.90	0.14	5.10	0.20	0.24
Sugar (white granulated)	0.54	0.74	4.26	1.32	8.4	1.60	7.06	0.84	17.4	5.00	15.2	6.00	0.73	7.30	0.64	51.30	1.08	1.40
Coffee	1.65	6.90	24.83	12.00	—	9.00	35.67	3.71	138.3	26.80	98.8	45.27	8.00	34.00	3.70	390.70	10.00	10.91
Coffee substitute	—	0.50	—	2.50	—	3.00	15.30	—	—	7.10	—	4.13	0.73	0.80	1.60	97.70	1.50	2.66
Tea	3.00	9.60	35.67	25.00	52.9	18.00	—	—	160.7	47.00	153.0	—	11.00	58.00	—	586.10	16.00	28.80
Cheese	1.30	1.60	0,60	1.48	28.0	5.50	25.35	0.88	72.3	17.15	87.8	6.26	1.50	17.00	1.76	195.40	5.40	1.98
Milk (unskimmed)	0.17	0.29	1.90	0.45	6.2	0.80	1.70	0.32	10.6	1.60	11.5	2.14	0.28	1.80	0.24	15.00	0.52	0.52
Eggs (not newlaid or preserved)	0.09	0.15	—	0.27	2.5	0.25	0.84	0.23	5.6	0.97	5.2	0.98	0.15	0.75	0.14	11.20	0.22	0.24
Rice	0.25	0.68	5.74	1.22	6.4	1.00	2.02	0.93	24.7	5.50	25.1	4.49	0.82	3.00	0.52	48.80	1.00	1.32

[1] Prices are per kilogramme, except for milk (per litre) and eggs (per unit). [2] Figures for 15 February. [3] Figures for 15 January 1927.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

Recent Labour Legislation

The list of laws and orders and international conventions given below continues the list published in previous numbers of the *Review*. The titles are, as a rule, given in the original language, with abbreviated translations of all those other than English, French and German. A brief statement of the subject is added where the title itself does not indicate it. Abbreviated titles of sources have been used[1]. Those entries in the list marked with an asterisk (*) will be reproduced in full in English, French, and German in the *Legislative Series* of the International Labour Office.

LEGISLATION OF 1925

MANDATED TERRITORIES

Cameroon

Arrêté promulguant au Cameroun le décret du 9 juillet 1925 complétant les dispositions du décret du 4 août 1922 sur le régime du travail au Cameroun. Du 7 août 1925. (J. O. des territoires du Cameroun, 1925, No. 127, p. 322.)

Arrêté promulguant le décret du 31 mars 1925 relatif à l'organisation du travail à bord des navires affectés à la navigation maritime. Du 25 novembre 1925. (J. O. des territoires du Cameroun, 1925, No. 135, p. 538.)

Irak

Irrigation and Bunds (Amendment) Law, 1925. Dated 7 January 1925. (13th day of Jamadi Al Thani, 1343.) [Compulsory provision of labour for repair and maintenance works.]

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[1] *List of abbreviations:* A. N. = Amtliche Nachrichten des Oesterreichischen Bundesministeriums für soziale Verwaltung; B. G. Bl. = Bundesgesetzblatt; B. I. R. S. = Boletin del Instituto de Reformas Sociales; B. M. T. = Bulletin du Ministère du Travail; B. O. M. T. = Boletin Oficial del Ministerio de Trabajo, Comercio e Industria; C. S. R. = Commonwealth Statutory Rules; D. R. A. = Deutscher Reichsanzeiger; Drj. Vest. = Drjaven Vestnik; E. K. N. = Ergatiké kai Koinoniké Nomothesia (pararténa B) (published by the Ministry of National Economy); Eph. Kyb. = Ephémeris tès Kybernéséos (Teuchos proton); G. U. = Gazzetta Ufficiale; I. N. K. T. = Izvestia Narodnogo Komissariata Trooda; J. O. = Journal Officiel; Lik. = Likumu un Ministru Kabineta Noteikumu Krajums; R. Arb. Bl. = Reichsarbeitsblatt; R. d. T. = Revue du Travail; R. G. Bl. = Reichsgesetzblatt; S. R. & O. = Statutory Rules and Orders; Sb. z. a n. = Sbirka zâkonu a narizeni (Collection of Laws and Orders of the Czechoslovak Republic); L. S. = Legislative Series of the International Labour Office.

Western Samoa

An Ordinance made by the Administrator of the Territory of Western Samoa, with the advice and consent of the Legislative Council of that Territory, and in pursuance of the Samoa Act, 1921. [Overseas Passengers' Landing Deposits Ordinance, 1925.] No. 2 of 1925. Dated 11 March 1925. (Supplement to the Western Samoa Gazette, 1925, No. 60.)

Togo

Arrêté No. 282 promulguant le décret du 31 mars 1925 portant organisation du travail à bord des navires affectés à la navigation maritime. Du 13 août 1925. (J. O. du territoire du Togo, 1925, No. 61, p. 337.)

Arrêté No. 362 promulguant dans le territoire du Togo : 1° les articles 13, 14 et 15 du décret du 24 février 1920 portant règlement d'administration publique pour l'exécution de la loi du 2 août 1919, fixant à huit heures par jour la durée du travail sur les navires ayant leur port d'attache en France et affectés à la navigation maritime ; 2° le décret du 5 septembre 1922, modifiant certaines dispositions du décret du 21 février 1920, et en particulier celles des articles 13, 14 et 15. Du 3 octobre 1925. (J. O. du territoire du Togo, 1925, No. 62, p. 376.)

CHILE

Decreto-Ley que agrega el art. 32 al Decreto-Ley No. 308 [sobre fomento de la edificación]. No. 696. 17 de Octubre de 1925.

[Legislative Decree No. 696 to supplement section 32 of Legislative Decree No. 308 (respecting the encouragement of building). Dated 17 October 1925.]

Decreto No 406 : Reglamento de aplicación del Decreto-Ley No. 308 [sobre fomento de la edificación]. 25 de Junio de 1925.

[Decree No. 406 : Administrative Regulations under Legislative Decree No. 308 (respecting the encouragement of building). Dated 25 June 1925.]

EGYPT

Arrêté portant modification à la liste des établissements incommodes, insalubres et dangereux. Du 29 juillet 1925. (J. O. du Gouvernement égyptien, 1925, No. 75, p. 2.)

Trois Arrêtés du 23 novembre 1925, portant modification à la liste des établissements incommodes, insalubres et dangereux. (J. O. du Gouvernement égyptien, 1925, No. 116, p. 1.)

INDO-CHINA

Arrêté instituant à Haïphong une commission permanente chargée de vérifier sur chaque navire transporteur, la bonne exécution de toutes les mesures imposées par les r glements ou nécessités par la sécurité et l'hygiène des émigrants indochinois recrutés pour l'extérieur. Du 13 mars 1925. (J. O. de l'Indo-Chine française, 1925, No. 22, p. 496.)

Arrêté modifiant l'article 13 de l'arrêté du 15 novembre 1919 réglementant l'immigration des Asiatiques étrangers au Cambodge. Du 30 mars 1925. (J. O. de l'Indo-Chine française, 1925, No. 28, p. 688.)

Arrêté modifiant l'article 1 de l'arrêté du 15 novembre 1919 relatif au droit d'immatriculation des Asiatiques étrangers au Cambodge. Du 13 juin 1925. (J. O. de l'Indo-Chine française, 1925, No. 48, p. 1167.)

Arrêté promulguant le décret du 30 avril 1925, portant organisation des Chambres d'agriculture en Indo-Chine. Du 27 juin 1925. (J. O. de l'Indo-Chine française, 1925, No. 52, p. 1294.)

Arrêté modifiant l'arrêté du 29 décembre 1913 sur les pensions civiles indigènes. Du 9 juillet 1925. (J. O. de l'Indo-Chine française, 1925, No. 56, p. 1367.)

Arrêté promulguant le décret relatif à l'organisation du travail à bord des navires affectés à la navigation maritime et ayant leur port d'attache dans la Métropole. Du 26 octobre 1925. (J. O. de l'Indo-Chine française, 1925, No. 87, p. 2278.)

Arrêté fixant les heures réglementaires de travail dans les fabriques d'allumettes en Indo-Chine. Du 27 novembre 1925. (J. O. de l'Indo-Chine française, 1925. No. 96, p. 2543.)

MEXICO (UNITED STATES OF)

Veracruz-Llave

Ley Núm. 176 : [se reforma el artículo 206 de la Ley del Trabajo]. 10 de julio de 1925.
[Act No. 176 (to amend section 206 of the Labour Act). Dated 10 July 1925.]

Ley Núm. 183 : [se adiciona y reforma el artículo 144 de la Ley del Trabajo]. 10 de julio de 1925.
[Act No. 183 (to supplement and amend section 144 of the Labour Act). Dated 10 July 1925. (Conditions for legal recognition of associations).]

Decreto Núm. 77 que reforma y adiciona los artículos 12, 21, 33 fracciones II y X, 40 fracciones VI, X, XI y XII, 41, 79 fracción II, 101, 106, 107. 108. 109 y 185 de la Ley del Trabajo vigente. 30 de enero de 1925.
[Decree No. 77 to amend and supplement sections 12, 21, 33 (Nos. II and X), 40 (Nos. VI, X, XI, and XII), 41, 79 (No. II), 101, 106, 107, 108, 109, and 185 of the Labour Act in force. Dated 30 January 1925.]

NIGERIA

An Ordinance to amend the Native Authority Ordinance. No. 5 of 1925. Chap. 73. Dated 26 February 1925. (Supplement to the Law of Nigeria, 1926, p. 25.)

NORWAY

Kongelig resolusjon om ikrafttreden av lover av 17 juli 1925, om forandringer i ulykkesforsikringslovene for industriarbeidere, for sjömenn og for fiskere. 11 september 1925. (Norsk Lovtidende, 1925, 2den avdeling, p. 477.)
[Resolution respecting the coming into operation of the Acts of 17 July 1925 to amend the Accident Insurance Acts (for industrial workers, seamen, and fishermen). Dated 11 September 1925.]

NORTHERN RHODESIA

An Ordinance to amend "The Master and Servants Proclamation 1908" (North-Western Rhodesia Proclamation No. 37 of 1908) (hereinafter referred to as "the principal law") as amended by proclamations Northern Rhodesia Nos. 18 of 1912 and 10 of 1913. No. 10 of 1925. Assented to 27 May 1925.

RUMANIA

Lege : [Guvernul este autorizat a ratifică si a face sa se execute Conventiunea dintre România si Regatul Sârbilor, Croatilor si Slovenilor, semnata la Belgrad in 5 Julie 1924 si relativa la regimul proprietatilor situate in zona de fruntarie.] 24 Februarie 1925. (Monitorul Oficial, 1927, No. 27, p. 1441.)
[Act to authorise the Government to ratify and put into operation the Treaty between Rumania and the Serb-Croat-Slovene Kingdom, signed at Belgrade on 5 July 1924, respecting farms, etc., in the frontier zones. Dated 24 February 1925.]

LEGISLATION OF 1926

MANDATED TERRITORIES

Cameroon

Arrêté promulguant au Cameroun le décret du 13 février 1926 modifiant le décret du 9 juillet 1925, sur le régime du travail au Cameroun. Du 24 mars 1926. (J. O. des territoires du Cameroun, 1926, No. 142, p. 205.)

Arrêté instituant une chambre consultative d'agriculture au Cameroun. Du 2 novembre 1926. (J. O. des territoires du Cameroun, 1926, No. 157, p. 629.)

INTERNATIONAL

Latvia-Estonia

Noligums starp Latviju un Lgauniju par koku pludinâsanas nokârtosanu pa abu valstu pierobezu upêm. 1926. g. 5 februari. (Valdîbas Vêstnesis, 1926, No. 293, pp. 1-2.)

[Agreement between Latvia and Estonia respecting timber-floating on rivers forming the boundary between the two States. Dated 5 February 1926.]

Austria-Hungary

Uebereinkommen zwischen der Bundesregierung der Republik Oesterreich und der königlichen ungarischen Regierung, betreffend die Regelung des Personenverkehres im kleinen Grenzverkehre. Vom 14. Juli 1926.

Megallapodas az Osztrak Köztarsasag Szövetségi Kormanya és a Magyar Kiralysag között a kisebb határszéli személyforgalom szabalyozasa targyaban. 1926. év. julius hó 14-én. (B. G. Bl., 1927, 8. Stück, No. 35, p. 113.)

Germany-Saar Territory

Protokoll über die Regelung des Arbeiterverkehrs an der deutsch-saarländischen Grenze. Vom 14. September 1926. (R. G. Bl., II, 1927, No. 6, p. 19.)

ARGENTINA

Decreto reglamentando la ley No. 4661, sobre Descanso dominical. 1 de marzo de 1926. (Crónica mensual del Dep. n. del Trabajo, 1926, No. 98, p. 1727.)

[Decree issuing regulations under the Sunday Rest Act No. 4661. Dated 1 March 1926.]

Ley No. 11388 de 20 de diciembre de 1926. Sobre régimen de las sociedades cooperativas. (Boletín Oficial, 1926, No. 9814, p. 913.)

[Act No. 11388 respecting the regulations for co-operative societies. Dated 20 December 1926.]

AUSTRALIA

South Australia

An Act to amend the State Bank Act, 1925, and for other purposes. (17 Geo. V, No. 1748.) Assented to 2 December 1926. (Acts of the Parliament of South Australia, 1926.)

An Act to amend the Lifts Regulation Act, 1908. (17 Geo. V, No. 1762.) Assented to 9 December 1926. (Acts of the Parliament of South Australia, 1926.)

An Act to provide for the Appointment of a Commissioner of Highways, and to make further and better Provision for the Construction and Maintenance of Roads and Works, and for other purposes. (17 Geo. V, No. 1769.) Assented to 16 December 1926. (Acts of the Parliament of South Australia, 1926.)

An Act to provide Superannuation Benefits for persons employed by the Government of South Australia and to make provision for the families of those persons; to abolish the obligation to contribute to certain existing Superannuation Funds; to provide a system of Voluntary Saving, and for purposes consequent thereon or incidental thereto. (17 Geo. V, No. 1770.) Assented to 16 December 1926. (Acts of the Parliament of South Australia, 1926.)

An Act to consolidate and amend the law relating to State Children, Destitute Persons, the Summary Protection of Married Women, and other matters, and to make Provision for granting Assistance to Mothers for the Maintenance of their Children and for other purposes. (17 Geo. V, No. 1780.) Assented to 16 December 1926. (Acts of the Parliament of South Australia, 1926.)

An Act to consolidate and amend the Law relating to Local Courts and Officers thereof, and Matters connected therewith. (17 Geo. V, No. 1782.) Assented to 22 December 1926. (Acts of the Parliament of South Australia, 1926.)

Western Australia

An Act to amend the Inspection of Scaffolding Act, 1924. (17 Geo. V, No. 21 of 1926.) Assented to 6 November 1926.

An Act to amend the provisions of the Government Railways Act, 1914, relating to Appeals and the Appeal of the Board, and to repeal section fifty-two. Dated 24 December 1926. (Government Gazette of Western Australia, 1926, No. 60, p. 2566.)

Regulations made under " The Industrial Arbitration Act, 1912-1925 ". [Building trade apprentices.] Dated 31 December 1926. (Government Gazette of Western Australia, 1926, No. 60, p. 2588.)

AUSTRIA

Bundesgesetz vom 16. Dezember 1926, wirksam für das Land Salzburg, über das Diensteinkommen und die Ruhe- und Versorgungsgenüsse der Lehrpersonen an allgemeinen öffentlichen Volks- und öffentlichen Bürgerschulen (Lehrgehaltsgesetz). (B. G. Bl., 1927, 2. Stück, No. 11, p. 41; Erratum: B. G. Bl., 1927, 10. Stück, No. 43, p. 132.)

Bundesgesetz vom 16. Dezember 1926, wirksam für das Land Salzburg, über das Dienstverhältnis der Lehrpersonen an den allgemeinen öffentlichen Volks- und den öffentlichen Bürgerschulen (Lehrerdienstpragmatik.) (B. G. Bl., 1927, 2. Stück, No. 10, p. 17.)

Bundesgesetz vom 16. Dezember 1926, wirksam für das Land Salzburg, über die gewerblichen Fortbildungsschulen. (B. G. Bl., 1927, 2. Stück, No. 10, p. 48.)

Bundesgesetz vom 20. Dezember 1926, betreffend die Geltendmachung von Ansprüchen an die Altersversorgungseinrichtungen der ehemaligen k. k. österreichischen Staatseisenbahnverwaltung. (B. G. Bl., 1927, 1. Stück, No. 2, p. 1.)

Verordnung der Bundesregierung vom 22. Juli 1926 zur Durchführung des Artikels 3, Punkt II, des Bundesgesetzes vom 26. März 1926, B. G. Bl. Nr. 76 (III Durchführungsverordnung zum Artikel 3 des Verwaltungsersparungsgesetzes). (B. G. Bl., 1926, 42. Stück, No. 188, p. 762.)

Verordnung des Bundesministeriums für soziale Verwaltung vom 22. Juli 1926 im Einvernehmen mit den beteiligten Bundesministerien zur Durchführung des Artikels 3, Punkt IV, des Bundesgesetzes vom 26. März 1926, B. G. Bl. Nr. 76 (IV. Durchführungsverordnung zum Artikel 3 des Verwaltungsersparungsgesetzes). (B. G. Bl., 1926, 42. Stück, No. 189, p. 763.)

Verordnung des Bundesministeriums für soziale Verwaltung vom 9. Dezember 1926, womit das Muster " B " der Ministerialverordnung vom 5. März 1912, R. G. Bl. Nr. 47, betreffend die Verwendung von Hilfskräften im Betriebe von Apotheken, abgeändert wird. (B. G. Bl., 1926, 85. Stück, No. 366, p. 1547.)

Verordnung des Bundesministers für soziale Verwaltung vom 11. Dezember 1926 über die Erhaltung des Arbeiterstandes in gewerblichen Betrieben. (B. G. Bl., 1926, 85. Stück, No. 368, p. 1548.)

BELGIUM

Loi du 14 juin 1926 autorisant le Gouvernement à opérer des enquêtes sur la situation industrielle du pays. (R. d. T., 1926, No. 11, p. 1794.)

*Arrêté royal : Loi du 14 juin 1921 instituant la journée de huit heures et la semaine de quarante-huit heures. — Industries soumises à l'influence des saisons (art. 5). — Conservation des œufs par le froid. Du 8 novembre 1926. (R. d. T., 1926, No. 11, p. 1794.)

Arrêté royal du 29 décembre 1926 concernant : Commission d'appel des pensions de vieillesse. Règlement organique. — Modifications. (Moniteur Belge, 1927, No. 22, p. 240.)

CANADA

Ontario

Regulation No. 96 under the Workmen's Compensation Act declaring "compressed air illness" to be an industrial disease. Dated 1 October 1926. (Labour Gazette, 1926, Vol. XXVI, No. 11, p. 1079.)

Quebec

An Act respecting the officers and employees of the Provincial Government. 16 Geo. V, ch. 14. Assented to 24 March 1926.

Order No. 676 concerning the safety of work in mines. Dated 22 April 1926. (Statutes, 1926, p. IX.)

Order No. 1 under the Minimum Wage Act of 1919 : Concerning Female Employees in Laundries, Dye-works, and Dry-cleaning Establishments, in the City and Island of Montreal and a radius of 10 miles around and beyond the Island. Dated 11 November 1926. (Labour Gazette, 1926, Vol. XXVI, No. 12, p. 1195.)

CHILE

Decreto Núm. 908 : Reglamento de edificación complementario de la Ley Núm. 308 de 9 de Marzo de 1925, sobre habitaciones baratas. 8 de octubre de 1926.

[Decree No. 908 : Building Regulations in pursuance of Act No. 308 of 9 March 1925 respecting cheap housing. Dated 8 October 1926.]

COSTA RICA

*Ley no. 92 [modificando la ley no. 53 de 31 de enero de 1925 sobre reparación por accidentes del trabajo]. 24 de agosto de 1926. (La Gaceta, 1926, No. 197, p. 1271.)

[Act [to amend Act No. 53 of 31 January 1925 respecting compensation for industrial accidents]. Dated 24 August 1926.]

Decreto Núm. 16 : Dispone que el Banco Nacional de Seguros asuma el monopolio de seguros sobre accidentes de trabajo. 22 de mayo de 1926. (La Gaceta, 1926, No. 117, p. 677.)

[Decree No. 16 to provide that the National Insurance Bank shall undertake the monopoly of insurance against industrial accidents. Dated 22 May 1926.]

Decreto Núm. 18 : Reglamento de seguros sobre accidentes de trabajo. 10 de junio de 1926. (La Gaceta, 1926, No. 133, p. 789 ; Crónica Mensual, Argentina, Oct. 1926, No. 106, p. 1900.)

[Decree No. 18 issuing regulations for insurance against industrial accidents. Dated 10 June 1926.]

CZECHOSLOVAKIA

Zakon ze dne 16. prosince 1926 o prodlouzeni iucinnosti a doplneni zakona o mimoradnych opatrenich bytové péce. (Sb. z. a n., 1926, Castka 111, No. 235, p. 1281.)

[Act to prolong the operation of and to supplement the Act respecting special measures for the provision of housing accommodation. Dated 16 December 1926.]

Zakon ze dne 16. prosince 1926 o hranici prijmu vylucujici z naroku na duchod valecnych poskozencu. (S. z. a n., 1926, Castka 111, No. 236, p. 1281.)

[Act respecting the income limit above which the right to a war-service pension is excluded. Dated 16 December 1926.]

Zakon ze dne 17. prosince 1926, kterym se meni zakon ze dne 1. cervence 1926, cis. 118 Sb. z. a n., jimz se meni §§ 275 a 276 zakona ze dne 9. rijna 1924, cis. 221 Sb. z. a n., o pojisteni zamestnancu pro pripad nemoci, invalidity a stari. (Sb. z. a n., o pojisteni zamestnancu pro pripad nemoci, invalidity a stari. (Sb. z. a n., 1926, Castka 111, No. 237, p. 1282.)

[Act to amend the Act of 1 July 1926 (Sb. z. a n., No. 118) to amend sections 275 and 276 of the Act of 9 October 1924 (Sb. z. a n. No. 221) respecting the insurance of workers against sickness, invalidity, and old age. Dated 17 December 1926.]

Vladni narizeni ze dne 2. prosince 1926, kterym se prodluzuje platnost predpisu §§ 13, 16, 17 a 18 vladniho narizeni ze dne 21. rijna 1922, c. 305 Sb. z. a n., o Zaopatreni trvalych zamestnancu na velkém majetku pozemkovem. (Sb. z. a n., 1926, Castka 105, No. 219, p. 1015.)

[Government Order to prolong the operation of the provisions of sections 13, 16, 17, and 18 of the Government Order of 21 October 1922 (Sb. z. a n. No. 305) respecting pensions for permanent officials on large estates. Dated 2 December 1926.]

Vladni narizeni ze dne 22. prosince 1926 o uhrade drahotnich pridavku k duchodum podle zakona o pensijnim pojisteni. (Sb. z. a n., 1926, Castka 111, No. 245, p. 1287.)

[Government Order respecting measures to cover the cost-of-living bonuses on pensions under the Pension Insurance Act. Dated 22 December 1926.]

DENMARK

Anordning hvorved Lov om Tilsyn med Dampkedler paa Landjorden af 4. Oktober 1919 saettes i Kraft paa Faeröerne. Den 18. Juni 1926. (Lovtidenden A, No. 23, 1926, p. 908.)

[Order to bring into operation in the Faroe Islands the Act of 4 October 1919 concerning the inspection of steam boilers on land. Dated 18 June 1926.]

DUTCH EAST INDIES

Besluit van den Gouverneur-Generaal No. 22 : Nieuwe bepalingen omtrent het oprichten van inrichtingen, welke gevaar, schade of hinder kunnen veroorzaken. (" Hinder-ordonnantie ".) Den 13den Juni 1926. (Staatsblad van Nederlandsch-Indië, 1926, No. 226.)

[Decree of the Governor-General No. 22 : New provisions respecting the setting-up of equipment which may cause danger, injury, or obstruction. (" Obstruction Ordinance ".) Dated 13 June 1926.]

Besluit van den Gouverneur-Generaal van 15 Juni 1926, No. 1*x* : Koninklijk besluit van 29 April 1926 No. 58, waarbij is goedgekeurd de ordonnantie in Staatsblad 1925 No. 582, tot nadere aanvulling van het Koninklijk besluit in Indisch Staatsblad 1919 No. 27, houdende onder meer vaststelling van eenige bepalingen betreffende de uitoefening van het recht van vereeniging en vergadering. (Staatsblad van Nederlandsch-Indië, 1926, No. 228.)

[Decree of the Governor-General No. 1*x*, promulgating Royal Decree No. 58 of 29 April 1926 to approve the Order in Staatsblad, 1925, No. 582, respecting the application of the Royal Decree in Indisch Staatsblad, 1919, No. 27, laying down *inter alia* certain regulations respecting the right of association and assembly. Dated 15 June 1926.]

EGYPT

Arrêté portant institution d'un Comité consultatif chargé de la préparation d'un projet de loi pour la création de sociétés coopératives agricoles en Egypte ainsi que d'un règlement pour lesdites sociétés. Du 7 juillet 1926. (27 Zilhedjeh 1344.) (J. O. du Gouvernement égyptien, 1926, No. 68, p. 2.)

Arrêté portant modification à la liste des établissements incommodes, insalubres et dangereux. Du 15 septembre 1926. (8 Rabi Awal 1345.) (J. O. du Gouvernement égyptien, 1926, No. 91, p. 2.)

Arrêté portant modification à la liste des établissements incommodes, insalubres et dangereux. Du 21 septembre 1926. (14 Rabi Awal 1345.) (J. O. du Gouvernement égyptien, 1926, No. 94, p. 4.)

Arrêté portant modification à la liste des établissements incommodes, insalubres et dangereux. Du 8 décembre 1926 (3 Gamad Tani 1345.) (J. O. du Gouvernement égyptien, 1926, No. 118, p. 3.)

ESTONIA

Riigikogupoolt 30. novembril 1926. a. watuwõetud Maaseaduse täiendamise ja muutmise seaduse muutmise seadus. Nr. 107. (Riigi Teataja, 1926 a, No. 99, p. 1029.)

[Act No. 107 to amend the Act to supplement and amend the Agrarian Act. Dated 30 November 1926.]

Riigikogu poolt 17. detsembril 1926 a. vastuvõetud Maaseaduse §§ 15., 20., 22. ja 23. muutmise seadus. (Riigi Teataja, 1927, No. 1, p. 2.)

[Act No. 3 to amend sections 15, 20, 22 and 23 of the Agrarian Act. Dated 17 December 1926.]

Riigikogu poolt 17. detsembril 1926, a. vastuvõetud. Hoolekandeseaduse muutmise seadus. (Riigi Teataja, 1927, No. 1, p. 2.)

[Act No. 2 to amend the Relief Act. Dated 17 December 1926.]

Töö-hoolekandsministri määrus 18. detsembrist 1926 a. tööinspektorite jaoskondade kohta. (Riigi Teataja, 1926, No. 99, p. 1036.)

[Order of the Minister of Labour and Social Welfare respecting the labour inspection districts. Dated 18 December 1926.]

FINLAND

Laws

Lag angaende erläggande av ersättning at värnpliktig för kroppsskada eller sjukdom, adragen under fullgörande av militärtjänst. Den 13 april 1926. (Finlands Författningssamling, 1926, No. 106, p. 255.)

Laki korvauksen suorittamisesta asevelvollisille sotapalveluksessa sattuneen ruumiinvamman tai sairauden johdosta. 13 päivänä huntikuuta 1926. (Suomen Asetuskokoelma, 1926, No. 106, p. 255.)

[Act respecting the compensation payable to persons liable to compulsory service for injuries suffered or illnesses contracted during performance of military service. Dated 13 April 1926.]

Lag angaende vissa pensionskassor tillkommande löncbesparing. Den 7 maj 1926. (Finlands Författningssamling, 1926, No. 138, p. 332.)

Laki erinaisille eläkekassoille menevästä palkansäästöstä. 7 päivänä toukokuuta 1926. (Suomen Asetuskokoelma, 1926, No. 138, p. 332.)

[Act respecting the sums derived from salaries and wages allocated to various pension funds. Dated 7 May 1926.]

Lag angaende innehavares av statens tjänst eller befattning rätt till skadestand vid olycksfall. Den 18 december 1926. (Finlands Författningssamling, 1926, No. 322, p. 869.)

Laki valtion viran tai toimen haltijain tapaturmakorvauksesta. 18 päivänä joulukuuta 1926. (Suomen Asetuskokoelma, 1926, No. 322, p. 869.)

[Act respecting the right of state officials and employees to accident compensation. Dated 18 December 1926.]

Lag angaende statsunderstöd at arbetarinstitut. Den 31 December 1926. (Finlands Författningssamling, 1926, No. 339, p. 922.)

Laki työväenopistojen valtioavusta. 31 päivänä joulukuuta 1926. (Suomen Asetuskokoelma, 1926, No. 339, p. 922.)

[Act respecting state subsidies to workers' institutes. Dated 31 December 1926.]

Orders

Förordning on tillämpning av lagen den 7 maj 1926, angaende vissa pensionskassor tillkommande lönebesparing. Den 7 maj 1926. (Finlands Författningssamling, 1926, No. 139, p. 333.)

Asetus erinäisille eläkekassoille menevästä palkansäästöstä 7 päivänä toukokuuta 1926 annetun lain soveltamisesta. 7 päivänä toukokuuta 1926. (Suomen Asetuskokoelma, 1926, No. 139, p. 133.)

[Order for the administration of the Act of 7 May 1926 respecting the sums derived from salaries and wages allocated to various pension funds. Dated 7 May 1926.]

Förordning angaende tillämpning av lagen av den 13 april 1926 om erläggande av ersättning at värnpliktig för kroppsskada eller sjukdom, adragen under fullgörande av militärtjänst. Den 18 juni 1926. (Finlands Författningssamling, 1926, No. 204, p. 519.)

Asetus korvauksen surorittamisesta asevelvollisille sotapalveluksessa sattuneen ruumiinvamman tai sairauden johdosta 13 päivänä huhtikuuta 1926 annetun lain soveltamisesta. 18 päivänä kesäkuuta 1926. (Suomen Asetuskokoelma, 1926, No. 204, p. 519.)

[Order respecting the application of the Act of 13 April 1926 respecting compensation to persons liable to compulsory military service for injuries suffered or illnesses contracted during the performance of military service. Dated 18 June 1926.]

Statsradets beslut angaende olycksfallsnämndens sammansättning vid handläggning av ärenden angaende ersattning pa grund av lagen av den 13 april 1926 om erläggande av ersättning at värnpliktig för kroppsskada eller sjukdom, adragen under fullgörande av militärjänst. Den 18 juni 1926. (Finlands Författningssamling, 1926, No. 205, p. 523.)

Valtioneuvoston päätös tapaturmalautakunnan kokoonpanostaniiden korvausasiain käsittelyä varten, jotka perustuvat 13 päivänä huhtikuuta 1926 annettuun lakiin korvauksen suorittamisesta asevelvollisille sotapalveluksessa sattuneen ruumiinvamman tai sairauden johdosta. 18 päivänä kesäkuuta 1926. (Suomen Asetuskokoelma, 1926, No. 205, p. 523.)

[Decision of the Council of State respecting the composition of the Accident Committee in connection with cases relating to compensation under the Act respecting compensation to persons liable to compulsory service for injuries suffered or illnesses contracted during the performance of military service. Dated 18 June 1926.]

Statsradets beslut om verkställandet av lagen angaende innehavares av statens tjänst elle befattning rätt till skadestand vid olycksfall. Den 18 december 1926. (Finlands Författningssamling, 1926, No. 323, p. 871.)

Valtioneuvoston päätös valtion viran viran tai toimen haltijain tapaturmakorvauslain toimeenpanemisesta. 18 päivänä joulukuuta 1926. (Suomen Asetuskokoelma, 1926, No. 323, p. 871.)

[Resolution of the Council of State respecting the coming into operation of the Act respecting the right of state officials and employees to accident compensation. Dated 18 December 1926.]

*Statsradets beslut angaende arbetstid i kontinuerlig drift. Den 30 december 1926. (Finlands Författningssamling, 1926, No. 347, p. 933.)

Valtioneuvoston päätös joka koskee työaikaa kerkeytymättömässä työssä. 30 päivänä joulukuuta 1926. (Suomen Asetuskokoelma, 1926, No. 347, p. 933.)

[Resolution of the Council of State respecting hours of work in establishments with continuous processes. Dated 30 December 1926.]

*Statsradets beslut innefattande särskilda undantag fran stadgandena i lagen om atta timmars arbetstid given den 27 November 1917. Den 30 december 1926. (Finlands Författningssamling, 1926, No. 348, p. 935.)

Valtioneuvoston päätös, joka sisältää eräitä poikkeuksia kandeksan tunnin työajasta marraskuun 27 päivänä 1917 annetun lain säännöksistä. 30 päivänä joulukuuta 1926. (Suomen Asetuskokoelma, 1926, No. 348, p. 935.)

[Resolution of the Council of State respecting various exceptions to the provisions of the Act of 27 November 1917 concerning the eight-hour working day. Dated 30 December 1926.]

FRANCE

Décret relatif à l'exécution de travaux d'intérêt général à Madagascar par des travailleurs prélevés sur la deuxième portion du contingent indigène. Du 3 juin 1926. (J. O., 1926, No. 134, p. 6454.)

Décret déclarant inapplicables aux travailleurs malgaches engagés à la Réunion les dispositions du décret du 27 août 1887. Du 30 juillet 1926. (J. O., 1926, No. 181, p. 8884.)

Décret relatif aux pièces à produire par les indigènes algériens désireux de venir travailler en France. Du 4 août 1926. (J. O., 1926, No. 183, p. 8923.)

Décret modifiant le décret du 9 septembre 1905 relatif aux subventions aux Caisses de chômage. Du 14 novembre 1926. (J. O., 1926, No. 269, p. 12304.)

FRENCH COLONIES

Indo-China

Arrêté réglementant l'immigration chinoise en Annam. Du 28 avril 1926. (J. O. de l'Indo-Chine française, 1926, No. 35, p. 1123 ; Erratum : No. 63, p. 1963.)

Arrêté portant création d'une inspection du travail au Tonkin. Du 30 avril 1926. (J. O. de l'Indo-Chine française, 1926, No. 36, p. 1191.)

Arrêté du 28 mai 1926 promulguant en Indo-Chine la loi du 26 avril 1924 assurant l'emploi obligatoire des mutilés de la guerre et le décret du 3 avril 1925 portant règlement d'administration publique pour l'application de l'article 18 de la loi du 26 avril 1924 précitée. (J. O. de l'Indo-Chine française, 1926, No. 44, pp. 1462-65.)

Arrêté modifiant les articles 6, 7 et 11 du Règlement général de l'Enseignement professionnel. Du 20 juin 1926. (J. O. de l'Indo-Chine française, 1926, No. 50, p. 1613.)

Arrêté modifiant l'article 18 de l'arrêté du 15 novembre 1919 réglementant l'immigration des asiatiques étrangers au Cambodge. Du 20 juillet 1926. (J. O. de l'Indo-Chine française, 1926, No. 63, p. 1954.)

Arrêté modifiant l'arrêté du 30 novembre 1900 sur la taxe de capitation des Asiatiques étrangers au Laos. Du 22 septembre 1926. (J. O. de l'Indo-Chine française, 1926, No. 84, p. 2812.)

Arrêté portant création, au profit du budget local du Tonkin, d'une taxe dite d'émigration frappant la main-d'œuvre agricole et industrielle. Du 1er octobre 1926. (J. O. de l'Indo-Chine française, 1926, No. 84, p. 2819.)

Arrêté abrogeant l'article 4 de l'arrêté du 1er octobre 1926 instituant une taxe à l'émigration. Du 18 décembre 1926. (J. O. de l'Indo-Chine française, 1926 No. 103, p. 3447.)

Morocco

*Arrêté viziriel du 25 décembre 1926 (19 joumada II 1345) concernant les charges qui peuvent être portées, traînées ou poussées par les enfants et les femmes. (Bulletin Officiel, 1927, No. 741, p. 15.)

*Arrêté viziriel du 25 décembre 1926 (19 joumada II 1345) concernant les mesures générales de protection et de salubrité applicables à tous les établissements industriels et commerciaux (Bulletin Officiel, 1927, No. 741, p 11.)

Arrêté viziriel du 25 décembre 1926 (19 joumada II 1345) portant création de circonscriptions d'inspection du travail. (Bulletin Officiel, 1927, No. 741, p. 15.)

GERMANY

Prussia

Anordnung über die Annahme, Ausbildung und Prüfung von Gewerbeaufsichtsbeamten ohne technisch-wissenschaftliche Vorbildung. Vom 16. Oktober 1926. (R. Arb. Bl., 1927, No. 3, p. 124.)

Erlass des Ministers für Handel vom 15. Dezember 1926 Nr. III/12103, betr. Grundsätze für Ausbesserungsarbeiten auf Schiffen mit Mineralöltanks. (Ministerialblatt, 1927, No. 1, p. 4.)

GREAT BRITAIN

Order E (4), dated 30 September 1926, confirming general minimum time rates and overtime rates for certain classes of female workers and a general minimum piece rate for female home workers, and specifying 4 October 1926 as the date from which such rates should become effective. [Drift Net Mending Trade.] (Ministry of Labour Gazette, 1926, No. 10, p. 388.)

Order No. V (19), dated 12 October 1926, confirming general minimum time rates and overtime rates for certain classes of male workers employed in the Button Manufacturing Trade. (Ministry of Labour Gazette, 1926, No. 11, p. 429.)

Order W (17) and (18) dated 8 November 1926, confirming certain variations of overtime rates for male and female workers and specifying 15 November 1926, as the date from which such rates shall become operative. [Laundry Trade.] (Ministry of Labour Gazette, 1926, No. 12, p. 469.)

Northern Ireland

Order N.I.T.R.B. (22 and 23), dated 8 September 1926, confirming minimum rates of wages as fixed and as varied for male and female workers in the Retail Bespoke Tailoring Trade in Northern Ireland, specifying 20 September 1926 as the date from which these rates become effective. (Ministry of Labour Gazette, 1926, No. 10, p. 388.)

Order N.I.B.S. (16), dated 15 September 1926, confirming certain minimum rates of wages as fixed for male and female workers and the cancellation of certain other minimum rates of wages in their application to a class of male workers in the Boot and Shoe Repairing Trade of Northern Ireland, and specifying 27 September 1926 as the effective date. (Ministry of Labour Gazette, 1926, No. 10, p. 388.)

GUATEMALA

Decreto Núm. 1461 [modificando el Decreto legislativo No. 1249 (Ley de jubilaciones, pensiones y montepios del 30 de abril de 1923)]. 26 de mayo de 1926 (El Guatemalteco, 1926, No. 39, p. 230.)

[Decree No. 1461 (to amend Legislative Decree No. 1249) (Act of 30 April 1923 respecting pensions, superannuation allowances and welfare funds). Dated 26 May 1926.]

Decreto Núm. 921 : Codigo civil de la República de Guatemala. 30 de junio de 1926. (El Guatemalteco, 1926, No. 58, p. 337 ; No. 59, p. 345 ; No. 60, p. 353 ; Errata : No. 74, p. 421.)

[Decree No. 921 : Civil Code of the Republic of Guatemala. Dated 30 June 1926.]

HONDURAS

Decreto No. 85 : Codigo de procedimientos agrarios. 8 de marzo de 1926.

[Decree No. 85 promulgating a code respecting agrarian matters. Dated 8 March 1926.]

HUNGARY

M. kir. minisztérium 11110/1926. M.E. szamu rendelete a kisebb határszéli személyforgalom szabalyozasa targyaban az Osztrak Köztarsasaggal 1926. évi

julius ho 14-én Bécsben kötött megallapodas életbeléptetéséről. 1926 évi december ho 16-an. (Budapesti Közlöny, 1926, 292. szám. 2. lap.)

[Order No. 11110/1926 M.E. of the Council of Ministers respecting the coming into operation of the Convention between the Kingdom of Hungary and the Republic of Austria concerning the circulation of persons in frontier districts. Dated 16 December 1926.]

ITALY

Laws

Legge 3 aprile 1926, n. 2247 : Istituzione dell' Opera nazionale " Balilla " per l'assistenza e l'educazione fisica e morale della gioventù. (Numero di pubblicazione : 47.) (G. U., 1927, No. 7, p. 86.)

[Act No. 2247 respecting the institution of the National Foundation " Balilla " for the assistance and physical and moral training of the young. Dated 3 April 1926.]

Regio decreto-legge 2 luglio 1926, n. 2245 : Esecuzione di atti internazionali conclusi a Vienna il 30 novembre 1923 fra l'Italia ed altri Stati in materia di pensioni. (Numero di pubblicazione : 104.) (G. U., 1927, No. 13, p. 186.)

[Legislative Decree No. 2245 for the execution of the international arrangement respecting pensions concluded at Vienna on 30 November 1923 between Italy and other States. Dated 2 July 1926.]

Regio decreto-legge 16 settembre 1926, n. 1606 : Approvazione del regolamento legislativo per l'ordinamento e le funzioni dell'Opera nazionale per i combattenti. (G. U., 22 settembre 1926, No. 220.)

[Legislative Decree No. 1606, to approve the legislative regulations for the working and duties of the National Foundation for service men. Dated 16 September 1926.]

Regio decreto-legge 4 novembre 1926, n. 2269 : Disposizioni per la costruzione di case economiche per i ferrovieri. (Numero di pubblicazione : 90.) (G. U., 1927, No. 11, p. 157.)

[Legislative Decree No. 2269 respecting the construction of cheap houses for railway employees. Dated 4 November 1926.]

Regio decreto-legge 12 dicembre 1926, n. 2216 : Proroga dei termini previsti dal R. decreto-legge 19 giugno 1924, n. 1153, riguardante i gradi di macchinista per motonavi e di motorista navale. (Numero di pubblicazione : 32.)

[Legislative Decree No. 2216 to extend the time-limits specified in Legislative Decree No. 1153 of 19 June 1924 respecting the grades of motor-boat engineers and naval motor men. Dated 12 December 1926.]

Regio decreto-legge 16 dicembre 1926, n. 2334 : Provvedimenti per lo sviluppo tecnico ed economico delle piccole industrie. (G. U., 1927, No. 16, p. 237.)

[Legislative Decree No. 2334 respecting measures for the technical and economic development of small industries. Dated 16 December 1926.]

Legge 16 dicembre, n. 2231 : Conversione in legge del R. decreto-legge 7 gennaio 1926, n. 161, concernente il trattamento di previdenza per il personale del Sindacato obbligatorio siciliano di mutua assicurazione, per gli infortuni sul lavoro nelle miniere di zolfo della Sicilia. (Numero di pubblicazione : 67.) (G. U., 1927, No. 9, p. 127.)

[Act No. 2231 respecting the conversion into an Act of Legislative Decree No. 161 of 7 January 1926 respecting welfare measures for the staff of the compulsory association for mutual insurance against accidents in the Sicilian sulphur mines. Dated 16 December 1926.]

Regio decreto-legge 23 dicembre 1926, n. 2268 : Radiazione di marittimi dalle matricole e dai registri della gente di mare. (Numero di pubblicazione : 96.) (G. U., 1927, No. 12, p. 174.)

[Legislative Decree No. 2268 respecting the deletion of the names of seamen from the seamen's registers. Dated 23 December 1926.]

Regio decreto-legge 30 dicembre 1926, n. 2243 : Disposizioni concernenti l'acquisto o la construzione di case economiche per i funzionari ed agenti dell' Ammi-

nistrazione postale e telegrafica. (Numero di pubblicazione : 42.) (G. U., 1927, No. 6, p. 74.)

[Legislative Decree No. 2243 respecting the purchase or construction of cheap houses for officials and employees of the Postal and Telegraph Department. Dated 30 December 1926.]

Regio decreto-legge 30 dicembre 1926. n. 2288 : Vigilanza sul funzionamento delle società cooperative ed istituzione dell' Ente nazionale per la cooperazione. (Numero di pubblicazione : 106.) (G. U., 1927, No. 13, p. 195.)

[Legislative Decree No. 2288 respecting the supervision of the working of co-operative societies and the establishment of the National Institution for Co-operation. Dated 30 December 1926.]

Orders

Regio decreto 10 luglio 1926, n. 1364 : Provvedimenti per il miglioramento degli assegni ai pensionati della Cassa invalidi della marina mercantile. (Numero di pubblicazione : 1674.) (G. U., 17 agosto 1926, No. 190.)

[Royal Decree No. 1364 to provide for an increase in the allowances to persons in receipt of a pension from the Mercantile Marine Invalidity Fund. Dated 10 July 1926.]

Regio Decreto 3 settembre 1926, n. 1592 : Funzionamento della magistratura del lavoro nel territorio della Corte d'Appello di Fiume. (Numero di Pubblicazione : 1889.) (G. U., 21 settembre 1926, No. 219.)

[Royal Decree No. 1592 : working of the labour tribunals in the territory of the Fiume Court of Appeal. Dated 3 September 1926.]

Regio decreto 14 ottobre 1926, n. 1927 : Approvazione del regolamento per le fabbriche di conserve alimentari preparate con sostanze vegetali. (Numero di pubblicazione : 2244.) (G. U., 25 novembre, 1926, No. 272.)

[Royal Decree No. 1927 to approve the regulations for factories for preserved foodstuffs prepared from vegetable products. Dated 14 October 1926.]

Regio decreto 14 ottobre 1926, n. 1835 : Ordinamento del Consiglio Superiore delle Miniere. (Numero di pubblicazione : 2159.) (G. U., 11 novembre 1926, No. 260.)

[Royal Decree No. 1835 : rules for the Superior Mining Council. Dated 14 October 1926.]

Regio decreto 12 dicembre 1926, n. 2225 : Approvazione dello statuto delle Federazioni provinciali fasciste dei Sindacati agricoltori e di quello dei Sindacati provinciali fascisti degli agricoltori. (Numero di pubblicazione : 132.) (G. U., 1927, No. 15, p. 220.)

[Royal Decree No. 2225 to approve the rules of the Provincial Fascist Federations of Agricultural Unions and those of the Provincial Fascist Federations of Agriculturists. Dated 12 December 1926.]

Regio decreto 23 diciembre 1926, n. 2339 : Riconoscimento giuridico dell'Associazione nazionale per il controllo della combustione ed approvazione dello statuto relativo. (Numero di pubblicazione : 155.) (G. U., 1927, No. 18, p. 282.)

[Royal Decree No. 2339 to give legal recognition to the National Association for the supervision of the use of fuel and to approve the rules therefor. Dated 23 December 1926.]

Regio decreto 30 dicembre 1926, n. 2317 : Riconoscimento giuridico delle Associazioni nazionali : piloti civili ed ufficiali di rotta civili ; meccanici, motoristi e radio-telegrafisti ; impiegati amministrativi aziende aeronautiche. (Numero di pubblicazione : 252.) (G. U., 1927, No. 27, p. 502.)

[Royal Decree No. 2317 : legal recognition of the National Associations (Aviation) of civilian pilots and navigating officers ; engineers, motormen and wireless operators ; and administrative employees of aviation undertakings. Dated 30 December 1926.]

KENYA

An Ordinance to make Provision for the Control and Improvement of Crop Production and Livestock, and the Marketing thereof. No. 3 of 1926. Assented to 26 March 1926.

LATVIA

Likums par noligumu starp Latviju un Lgauniju par koku pludinâsanas nokârtosanu abu valstu pierobezu upês. 1926. g. 29. decembri. (Valdîbas Vêstnesis, 1926, No. 293, p. 1.)

[Act respecting the agreement between Latvia and Estonia respecting timber-floating on rivers forming the boundary between the two States. Dated 29 December 1926.]

LUXEMBURG

Arrêté grand-ducal du 27 décembre 1926, portant fixation du maximum du salaire normal en matière d'assurance-maladie.

Grossh. Beschluss vom 27 Dezember 1926, betreffend Festsetzung des Höchstgrundlohnes in Sachen der Krankenversicherung.

(Mémorial, No. 62, p. 922.)

Arrêté grand-ducal du 27 décembre 1926, sur l'application de l'article 160 de la loi du 17 décembre 1925, aux entreprises agricoles et forestières.

Grossh. Beschluss vom 27. Dezember 1926, über die Anwendung des Art. 160 des Gesetzes auf die land- und forstwirtschaftlichen Betriebe.

(Mémorial, No. 62, p. 1004.)

NETHERLANDS

Wet van den 30. December 1926, houdende goedkeuring van het op 12 Mei 1926 te Athene tusschen Nederland en Griekenland gesloten handelsverdrag met twee daarbij behoorende protocollen en protocol van onderteekening. (Staatsblad, 1926, No. 476.)

[Act to approve the Commercial Treaty between the Netherlands and Greece concluded on 12 May 1926 and the two relevant protocols and the protocol of signature. Dated 30 December 1926.]

Besluit van den 2. December 1926, houdende vaststelling van een Indisch burgerlijk pensioenreglement. (Staatsblad, 1926, No. 391.)

[Decree respecting pensions regulations for civil servants in the Indies. Dated 2 December 1926.]

Besluit van den 28. December 1926, houdende bekendmaking van den tekst van het Koninklijk besluit van 17 April 1923 (Staatsblad No. 146), tot herziening van het Koninklijk besluit van 17 Maart 1921 (Staatsblad No. 538), laatstelijk gewijzigd bij Koninklijk besluit van den 16. November 1926 (Staatsblad No. 377), tot vaststelling van een algemeenen maatregel van bestuur, als bedoeld bij de artt. 5, 18, tweede lid, 20, tweede lid, 21, vierde lid, 22, tweede lid, 23, vierde lid, der Ouderdomswet 1919 en tot vaststelling van een algemeenen maatregel van bestuur als bedoeld in artikel XX van de wet van 19 Mei 1922 (Staatsblad No. 352). (Staatsblad, 1926, No. 449.)

[Decree promulgating the text of the Royal Decree of 17 April 1923 (Staatsblad No. 146) to amend the Royal Decree of 17 March 1921 (Staatsblad No. 538) as last amended by Royal Decree of 16 November 1926 (Staatsblad No. 377) issuing public administrative regulations under sections 5, 18, subsection (2), 20, subsection (2), 21, subsection (4), 22, subsection (2) and 23, subsection (4) of the Old-Age Act 1919, and issuing public administrative regulations under section XX of the Act of 19 May 1922 (Staatsblad No. 352). Dated 28 December 1926.]

NEW ZEALAND

A Proclamation notifying His Majesty's Assent to the Samoa (Shipping) Act, 1925. Dated 10 May 1926. (Western Samoa Gazette, 1926, No. 41, p. 179.)

Proclamation amending a Proclamation dated 10 May 1926, notifying His Majesty's Assent to the Samoa (Shipping) Act, 1925. Dated 29 May 1926. (Western Samoa Gazette, 1926, No. 41, p. 180.)

NICARAGUA

Ley: [construcción de caminos]. 26 de marzo de 1926. (La Gaceta, 1926, No. 97, p. 769.)

[Act (respecting the construction of roads). (Compulsory service.) Dated 26 March 1926.]

POLAND

Rozporzadzenie Ministra Pracy i Opieki Spolecznej z dnia 6 grudni 1926 r. w sprawie najwyzszej normy zarobku robotnika, stanowiacej podstawe do obliczenia wkladek na rzecz funduszu bezrobocia. (Dziennik Ustaw, 1926, No. 124, poz. 717, p. 1457.)

[Order of the Minister of Labour and Social Welfare respecting the maximum rate of wage to be taken as basis in assessing contributions to the Unemployment Fund. Dated 6 December 1926.]

Rozporzadzenie Prezydenta Rzeczypospolitej z dnia 13 grudnia 1926 r. w sprawie zmian niektorych postanowien ustawy z dnia 11-go grudnia 1923 r. o zaopatrzeniu emerytalnem funkcjonarjuszow panstwowych i zawodowych wojskowych w brzmieniu ustalonem ustawa z dnia 13 lutego 1924 r. (Dziennik Ustaw, 1926, No. 122, poz. 705, p. 1393.)

[Order of the President to amend in certain respects the Act of 11 December 1923 respecting the pensions of officials and professional soldiers, in the text promulgated by the Act of 13 February 1924. Dated 13 December 1926.]

Rozporzadzenie Ministra Pracy i Opieki Spolecznej w porozumieniu z Ministrem Sprawiedliwosci i Ministrem Skarbu, z dnia 17 grudnia 1926 r. o dietach dziennych dla czlonkow komisyj rozjemczych, powolanych, w mysl ustaw z dnia 1 sierpnia 1919 r. o zalatwianiu zatargow zbiorowych pomiedzy pracodawcami i pracownikami rolnymi, na obszarze Spsza i Orawy, nalezacym do Rzeczypospolitej Polskiej. (Dziennik Ustaw, 1926, No. 124, poz. 718, p. 1458.)

[Order of the Minister of Labour and Social Welfare, in agreement with the Ministers of Justice and Finance, respecting allowances for members of the arbitration commissions set up under the Act of 1 August 1919 respecting the settlement of collective disputes between employers and agricultural workers in the territories of Spiesz and Orawa belonging to the Polish Republic. Dated 17 December 1926.]

Rozporzadzenie Ministra Pracy i Opieki Spolecznej z dnia 20 grudnia 1926 r. w porozumieniu z Ministrem Skarbu, Ministrem Przemyslu i Handlu, Ministrem Spraw Wewnetrznych, Ministrem Robot Publicznych, Ministrem Spraw Wojskowych, Ministrem Komunikacji i Ministrem Rolnictwa i Dobr Panstwowych w sprawie uchylenia dzialania ustepu 1-go art. 5-go ustawy o zabezpieczeniu na wypadek bezrobocia. (Dziennik Ustaw, 1927, No. 1, poz. 10, p. 10.)

[Order of the Minister of Labour and Social Welfare, in agreement with the Ministers of Finance, Commerce and Industry, Interior, Public Works, War, Communications, and Agriculture and State Lands to cancel the operation of subsection (1) of section 5 of the Unemployment Insurance Act. Dated 20 December 1926.]

Rozporzadzenie Prezydenta Rzeczypopolitej z dnia 22 grudnia 1926 r. w sprawie zmiany niektorych postanowien ustawy z dnia 17 lutego 1922 r. o panstwowej sluzbie cywilnej. (Dziennik Ustaw, 1926, No. 127, poz. 739, p. 1490.)

[Order to amend certain provisions of the Act of 17 February 1922 respecting the civil service. Dated 22 December 1926.]

Rozporzadzenie Prezydenta Rzeczypospolitej z dnia 29 grudnia 1926 r. w sprawie zmiany postanowien art. 6 ustawy o ochronie lokatorow. (Dziennik Ustaw, 1926, No. 128, poz. 757, p. 1501.)

[Order of the President to amend the provisions of section 6 of the Act respecting the protection of tenants. Dated 29 December 1926.]

Silesia

Ustawa z dnia 1. grudnia 1926 roku o Slaskim Funduszu Gospodarczym. (Dziennik Ustaw Slaskich, 1926, No. 28, poz. 51, p. 111.)

[Act respecting the Silesian Industrial Fund. Dated 1 December 1926.]

Ustawa z dnia 16. grudnia 1926 roku w sprawie ochrony lokatorow. (Dziennik Ustaw Slaskich, 1926, No. 29 poz. 54, p. 118.)

[Act respecting the protection of tenants. Dated 16 December 1926.]

Rozporzadzenie Wojewody Slaskiego z dnia 14. grudnia 1926 r. w przedmiocie przedluzenia czasokresu, oznaczonego w § 18 ustawy z dnia 6. kwietnia 1920 r. (Dz. U. Rzn. str. 458) o obowiazku zatrudnienia inwalidow ciezkouszkodzonych. (Dziennik Ustaw Slaskich, 1926, No. 52, poz. 29, p. 117.)

[Order of the Province of Silesia to prolong the period of operation fixed in section 18 of the Act of 6 April 1920 (R. G. Bl., p. 458) respecting the compulsory employment of the disabled. Dated 14 December 1926.]

Rozporzadzenie Wojwody Slaskiego z dnia 30. grudnia 1926 r. w celu wykonania ustawy z dnia 1. grudnia 1926 roku o Slaskim Funduszu Gospodarczym (Dz. U. Sl. No. 28, poz. 51). (Dziennik Ustaw Slaskich, 1926, No. 30, poz. 55, p. 125.)

[Order of the Province of Silesia for the administration of the Act of 1 December 1926 respecting the Silesian Industrial Fund. Dated 30 December 1926.]

PORTUGAL

Decreto No. 11942: Regula as condiçoes de higiene, salubridade e segurança dos lugares de trabalho e da montagem das oficinas e respectivos maquinismos das fabricas de fosforos. 23 de Julho de 1926. (Diário do Govêrno, 1926, No. 159, p. 851.)

[Order No. 11942 to regulate conditions of health, safety, and hygiene in the workplaces and the installation of workrooms and machinery in match factories. Dated 23 July 1926.]

Nova publicaçao, rectificada, do decreto No. 12477 (reorganizaçao geral dos Serviços de Saude Publica). 12 de Outubro de 1926. (Diário do Govêrno, 1926, No. 259, p. 1944.)

[Order No. 12477 respecting the reorganisation of the public health services. Dated 12 October 1926.]

Portaria No. 4809 — Aprova as instruçoes para aplicaçao do decreto No. 11020 e respectivo regulamento (meios de salvaçao a bordo). 31 de Outubro de 1926. (Diário do Govêrno, 1927, No. 19, p. 111.)

[Order No. 4809 to approve the instructions for the application of Decree No. 11020 and the relevant regulations (safety devices on board ship). Dated 31 October 1926.]

Decreto No. 12747: Determina que em portos estrangeiros, e sempre que por motivo de doença, deserçao ou outras causas de fôrça maior a guarniçao dos navios mercantes portugueses se encontre reduzida abaixo do minimo necessario para prosseguimento da viagem, possa ser consentida a matricula do pessoal estrangeiro indispensavel para completar a lotaçao do navio até primeiro pôrto nacional onde seja possivel substitui-lo por pessoal português. 27 de Novembro de 1926. (Diário do Govêrno, 1926, No. 268, p. 2101.)

[Decree No. 12747 to provide that in foreign ports in which as a result of illness, desertion, or for other reasons of *force majeure* the crew of a Portuguese merchant vessel is reduced below the minimum required for the continuation of the voyage, aliens may be engaged to make up the number until the first Portuguese port is reached in which it is possible to replace such aliens by Portuguese. Dated 27 November 1926.]

Decreto No. 12911: Estabelece as bases para a reorganizaçao dos serviços administrativos e pedagogicos dos estabelecimentos de educaçao de assistência publica integrados no Instituto de Seguros Sociais Obrigatorios e de Previdência Geral por virtude da extinçao da Provedoria da Assistência. 15 de Dezembro de 1926. (Diário do Govêrno, 1926, No. 290, p. 2367.)

[Decree No. 12911 to lay down the principles for the reorganisation of the Administrative and Pedagogic Sections of the Public Relief Educational Institutions connected with the compulsory Social Insurance and General Welfare Institute, necessitated by the abolition of the General Relief Institution. Dated 15 December 1926.]

Decreto No. 12912 : Amplia as atribuiçoes que pelo decreto No. 11176 foram conferidas ao Instituto de Orientaçao Profissional de Maria Luisa Barbosa de Carvalho. 15 de Dezembro de 1926. (Diário do Govêrno, 1926, No. 290, p. 2375.)

[Decree No. 12912 to extend the powers conferred by Decree No. 11176 on the Maria Luisa Barbosa do Carvalho Institute for vocational training. Dated 15 December 1926.]

Portaria No. 4782 : Determina as formalidades a observar nos serviços de emigraçao para a América do Norte. 17 de Dezembro de 1926. (Diário do Govêrno, 1926, No. 283, p. 2211.)

[Order No. 4782 fixing the formalities to be observed in the emigration offices for North America. Dated 17 December 1926.]

Decreto No. 12837 : Modifica as condiçoes de embarque de emigrantes portugueses com destino aos portos da América do Norte. 17 de Dezembre de 1926. (Diário do Govêrno, 1926, No. 283, p. 2210.)

[Decree No. 12837 to amend the conditions of embarkation for Portuguese emigrants to North American ports. Dated 17 December 1926.]

SALVADOR

Ley de Vialidad. 24 de junio de 1926. (Diário Oficial, 1926, No. 144, p. 1190.)

[Road Act. Dated 24 June 1926.]

Decreto : Se prohibe la entrada al territorio de la República, a las personas que padescan de ciertas enfermedades, etc. 23 de septiembre de 1926. (Diario Oficial, 1926, No. 213, p. 1769.)

[Decree to prohibit the entry into the Republic of persons suffering from certain diseases. Dated 23 September 1926.]

Decreto : apruebase el reglamento de la caja de ahorros de empleados de comercio de El Salvador. 4 de noviembre de 1926. (Diário Oficial, 1926, 247, p. 2041.)

[Decree to approve the Regulations for the Salvador Commercial Employees' Thrift Fund. Dated 4 November 1926.]

Decreto : Reglamento de la Ley de Vialidad. 27 de diciembre de 1926. (Diario Oficial, 1926, No. 286, p. 2317.)

[Decree : Regulations under the Road Act. Dated 27 December 1926.]

SERB-CROAT-SLOVENE KINGDOM

Order respecting the utilisation of moneys from the fund for the erection of houses for state employees. Dated 11 November 1926. (Sluzbene Novine, 1926, No. 263-LXIV.)

SPAIN

Real Orden disponiendo que en cada caso concreto los comités paritarios que deseen percibir de sus componentes recursos permanentes para realizar sus fines, lo pongan en conocimiento de la delegación regional del trabajo respectiva. 5 de febrero de 1926. (Gaceta, 19 de febrero de 1926; Revista Social (Barcelona), No. 1, abril, mayo y junio 1926, p. 165.)

[Royal Order to provide that joint committees desirous of collecting from their members permanent funds for the carrying out of their objects shall in every case inform the Regional Labour Office concerned. Dated 5 February 1926.]

Real orden aprobando las normas que se insertan para el funcionamiento de la inspección general de positos y colonización. 8 de marzo de 1926. (Gaceta, 11 de abril de 1926; Revista Social (Barcelona), No. 2, julio, agosto y septiembre 1926, p. 420.)

[Royal Order to approve the rules appended thereto for the working of the General Inspectorate of public grain depots and of land settlement. Dated 8 March 1926.]

Real orden dictando normas para la entrega de auxilios del estado a los constructores de casas baratas. 29 de marzo de 1926. (Revista Social (Barcelona), No. 2, julio, agosto y septiembre 1926, p. 422.)

[Royal Order issuing rules for the payment of state subsidies to constructors of cheap houses. Dated 29 March 1926.]

TRINIDAD AND TOBAGO

An Ordinance to repeal the Habitual Idlers Ordinance. No. 14 of 1926. Assented to 6 November 1926.

Regulations made by the Governor in Executive Council under section 34 of the Workmen's Compensation Ordinance, 1926. Approved 10 December 1926.

UNION OF SOUTH AFRICA

Proclamation No. 17, 1927 : the Railways and Harbours Service Act No. 23 of 1925, the Railway and Harbours Superannuation Fund Act No. 24 of 1925, and the Railways and Harbours Service and Superannuation Fund Acts Amendment Act No. 30 of 1926 shall *mutatis mutandis* as far as capable of application have force and effect within the Mandated Territory of South-West Africa with effect from the dates on which the respective Acts came into force within the Union of South Africa.] Dated 24 December 1926. (Union of South Africa Government Gazette, 1927, Vol. LXVII, No. 1601, p. 127.)

URUGUAY

Decreto de 19 de Febrero de 1926 : Se modifica el inciso III del articulo 1° del decreto de 14 de abril de 1925 reglamentario de la Ley de Prevención de Accidentes del Trabajo. (Crónica de la Oficina Nacional del Trabajo, 1926, Nos. 6, 7, 8, 9, p. 2.)

[Decree to amend No. III of section 1 of the Decree of 14 April 1925 issuing administrative regulations under the Act for the prevention of industrial accidents. Dated 19 February 1926.]

Decreto de 4 de Junio de 1926 : Ampliase el Capítulo correspondiente a " Construcciones y Demoliciones " del Decreto reglamentario de fecha 14 de abril de 1915 de la ley de 21 de julio de 1914 con un inciso XXV. (Crónica de la Oficina Nacional del Trabajo, 1926, Nos. 6, 7, 8, 9, p. 2.)

[Decree to add a No. XXV to the Chapter " Constructions and Demolitions " of the Decree of 14 April 1915 issuing administrative regulations under the Act of 21 July 1914. Dated 4 June 1926.]

LEGISLATION OF 1927

CONTROLLED TERRITORIES OF THE LEAGUE OF NATIONS

Saar Territory

Verordnung betr. die Erhöhung der Unterstützungssätze in der Erwerbslosenfürsorge im Saargebiet. Vom 9. Februar 1927. (Amtsblatt, 1927, No. 7, p. 28.)

MANDATED TERRITORIES

Palestine

*An Ordinance to prescribe penalties for intimidation. No. 3 of 1927. Promulgated by Order of 11 January 1927. (Official Gazette of the Government of Palestine, 1926, No. 174, p. 569; 1927, No. 179, p. 32.)

*An Ordinance to provide for the payment of compensation to workmen for injuries suffered by them. No. 4 of 1927. Promulgated by Order of 12 January 1927. (Official Gazette of the Government of Palestine, 1926, No. 174, p. 558; 1927, No. 179, p. 32.)

AUSTRALIA

Queensland

Regulations under " The Primary Producers Co-operative Associations Acts, 1923 to 1926 ". Dated 13 January 1927. (Queensland Government Gazette, 1927, No. 8, p. 57.)

AUSTRIA

Bundesgesetz vom 17. Februar 1927, womit einige Bestimmungen des Gesetzes vom 25. April 1919, St. G. Bl. Nr. 245 (Invalidenentschädigungsgesetz), in der Fassung der Bundesgesetze vom 18. November 1921, B. G. Bl. Nr 641, vom 7. Juli 1922, B.G.Bl. Nr. 430, und vom 18. Juli 1924, B. G. Bl. Nr. 256, abgeändert und ergänzt werden (IX. Novelle zum Invalidenentschädigungsgesetz). (B. G. Bl., 1927, 16. Stück, No. 66, p. 245.)

Bundesgesetz vom 4. März 1927 über das Verfahren der Agrarbehörden in den Angelegenheiten der Bodenreform (Agrarverfahrensgesetz — Agr.V.G.). (B. G. Bl., 1927, 22. Stück, No. 79, p. 288.)

Verordnung der Bundesregierung vom 27. Jänner 1927 über die Durchführung des Artikels III, lit. B, des Bundesgesetzes vom 10. Dezember 1926, B. G. Bl. No. 364 (Erste Durchführungsverordnung zu Artikel III, lit. B. der Gehaltsgesetznovelle). (B. G. Bl., 1927, 7. Stück, No. 34, p. 111.)

Verordnung des Bundesministeriums für soziale Verwaltung im Einvernehmen mit dem Bundesministerium für Handel und Verkehr vom 4. Februar 1927, betreffend die Beitragsleistung der Arbeit(Dienst)geber zum Bundes-, Wohn- und Siedlungsfonds. (B. G. Bl., 1927, 13. Stück, No. 51, p. 150.)

Verordnung des Bundesministeriums für soziale Verwaltung vom 23. Februar 1927, betreffend Einreihung der Hausgehilfen in die Lohnklassen des Krankenversicherungsgesetzes. (B. G. Bl., 1927, 16. Stück, No. 68, p. 248.)

BELGIUM

Arrêté royal du 14 janvier 1927 concernant : pensions des employés. Arrêté royal du 29 décembre 1926. Application aux versements effectués en 1927. (Moniteur Belge, 1927, No. 27, p. 296.)

Arrêté royal du 15 janvier 1927 : Caisse des veuves et orphelins des professeurs, fonctionnaires et employés de l'ordre administratif et enseignant de l'instruction publique. Modifications statutaires. (Moniteur Belge, 1927, No. 34, p. 381.)

Arrêté royal réglant l'application de l'article 7, alinéa 1er de la loi du 29 juillet 1926, en ce qui concerne les pensions des membres du personnel enseignant. Du 20 janvier 1927. (Moniteur Belge, 1927, No. 36, p. 409.)

Arrêté royal : Péréquation des pensions. Base de la révision prescrite par la loi du 29 juillet 1926, des pensions des membres du personnel des institutions communales d'enseignement technique. Du 20 janvier 1927. (Moniteur Belge, 1927. No. 36, p. 410.)

Arrêté : Habitations à bon marché. Du 17 février 1927. (Moniteur Belge, 1927, No. 57, p. 775.)

Arrêté royal du 24 février 1927 concernant : Loi du 10 décembre 1924. Arrêté royal du 19 novembre 1925. Modifications des dispositions relatives à la remise par les employeurs des cartes de versements aux assujettis et aux délais pour le dépôt des cartes de versements à la Caisse de retraite et aux bureaux de postes. (Moniteur Belge, 1927, Nos. 66-67, p. 1048.)

Arrêté ministériel du 10 mars, pris en exécution de l'article 6 de l'arrêté royal du 29 décembre 1926 concernant l'octroi d'allocations spéciales à certaines catégories de victimes d'accidents du travail. Modalités de perception des taxes. (Moniteur Belge, 1927, Nos. 73-74, p. 1173.)

DANZIG (FREE CITY OF)

Polizeiverordnung betreffend Beschäftigung von Saisonarbeitern. Vom 10. Januar 1927. (Staatsanzeiger, I, 1927, No. 5, p. 11.)

FRANCE

Décret portant règlement d'administration publique pour l'application d'un régime uniforme de répartition du travail dans les pharmacies vendant au détail de la ville du Havre. Du 14 janvier 1927. (J. O., 1926, No. 16, p. 785.)

Arrêté relatif au registre imposé aux employeurs occupant des travailleurs étrangers. Du 20 janvier 1927. (J. O., 1927, No. 30, p. 1571.)

Décret étendant aux colonies, pays de protectorat et de territoires à mandat relevant du ministère des Colonies, sauf l'Afrique occidentale française, la loi du 6 février 1895 modifiant l'article 549 du code de commerce ainsi que la loi du 17 juin 1919 modifiant l'article 2101 du code civil et l'article 549 du code de commerce. Du 22 janvier 1927. (J. O., 1927, No. 23, p. 1092.)

Décret portant règlement d'administration publique pour l'établissement d'un régime uniforme de répartition du travail dans les pharmacies vendant au détail de la ville de Béziers et dans les magasins et salons de coiffure de la ville de Nevers. Du 2 février 1927. (J. O., 1927, No. 34, p. 1704.)

Arrêté prorogeant les dispositions de l'arrêté du 16 juillet 1925, relatif à la proportion des pensionnés de guerre dont l'emploi est obligatoire dans les établissements assujettis à la loi du 26 avril 1924. Du 7 février 1927. (J. O., 1927, No. 42, p. 2166.)

Décret modifiant le décret du 18 mars 1926 portant règlement d'administration publique pour l application de la loi du 14 avril 1924 sur les pensions. Du 12 février 1927. (J. O., 1927, No. 39, p. 2013)

Décret désignant les juges de paix compétents pour connaître des litiges relatifs aux engagements maritimes. Du 12 février 1927. (J. O., 1927, No. 37, p. 1874.)

Décret portant promulgation du projet de convention concernant l'emploi de la céruse dans la peinture adopté par la Conférence internationale du Travail dans sa troisième session (Genève, 25 octobre-19 novembre 1921). Du 20 février 1927 (J. O., 1927, No. 47, p. 2373.)

Décret portant promulgation de la convention concernant le chômage élaborée à Washington par la Conférence internationale du Travail, signée à Paris, le 24 janvier 1921, par la France et la Belgique, et du protocole annexé à ladite convention. Du 20 février 1927. (J. O., 1927, No. 47, p. 2372.)

Décret portant promulgation de la convention concernant le travail de nuit des femmes élaborée à Washington par la Conférence internationale du Travail, signée à Paris le 24 janvier 1921 par la France et la Belgique ; de la convention concernant le travail de nuit des enfants dans l'industrie, élaborée à Washington par la Conférence internationale du Travail, signée à Paris le 24 janvier 1921 par la France et la Belgique, et du protocole annexé auxdites conventions. Du 20 février 1927. (J. O., 1927, No. 47, p. 2370.)

Décret portant règlement d administration publique pour l'établissement d'un régime uniforme de répartition des heures de travail pour le personnel préposé au transport, au ramassage et à la livraison du linge dans les blanchisseries des départements de Seine, Seine-et-Oise et Seine-et-Marne. Du 3 mars 1927. (J. O., 1927, No. 56, p. 2755.)

Décret portant règlement d'administration publique pour l'application de la loi du 23 avril 1919 sur la journée de huit heures dans l industrie de la fabrication des pâtes alimentaires. Du 4 mars 1927. (J. O., 1927, No. 58, p. 2831.)

Décret modifiant le décret du 24 janvier 1925 réglementant les conditions dans lesquelles les voyageurs français ou étrangers sont autorisés à débarquer en Afrique occidentale française. Du 5 mars 1927. (J. O., 1927. No. 58, p. 2844.)

Arrêté modifiant l arrêté du 5 novembre 1925 déterminant pour les marchés de travaux publics à exécuter dans le département de la Meuse, les conditions auxquelles doivent satisfaire, pour être agréées, les caisses de compensation ou autres institutions constituées entre chefs d'entreprises en vue du service des allocations familiales. Du 8 mars 1927. (J. O., 1927, No. 60, p 2909.)

Décret portant désignation pour l'Algérie des juges de paix compétents pour connaître des litiges relatifs aux engagements maritimes. Du 11 mars 1927. (J. O., 1927, No. 60, p. 2906.)

Décret déterminant à la Martinique les conditions de l'émigration. Du 15 mars 1927. (J. O., 1927, No. 66, p. 3121.)

Décret portant règlement d administration publique pour l'établissement d'un régime uniforme de répartition des heures de travail dans les pharmacies de la ville de Nice. Du 18 mars 1927. (J. O., 1927, No. 68, p. 3200.)

Arrêté modifiant l'arrêté du 17 janvier 1924 et rapportant celui du 8 mars 1927 relatifs aux conditions auxquelles doivent satisfaire, dans le département de l'Aisne, pour être agréées, en exécution des décrets du 13 juillet 1923, les caisses de compensation ou autres institutions constituées entre chefs d'entreprises en vue du service des allocations familiales. Du 19 mars 1927. (J. O., 1927, No. 67, p. 3145.)

Arrêté modifiant l'arrêté du 7 juin 1926 et rapportant celui du 24 février 1927 relatifs aux conditions auxquelles doivent satisfaire, dans les départements de Seine-et-Oise, pour être agréées, en exécution des décrets du 13 juillet 1923, les caisses de compensation ou autres institutions constituées entre chefs d'entreprises en vue du service des allocations familiales. Du 19 mars 1927. (J. O., 1927, No. 67, p. 3145.)

Arrêté modifiant l'arrêté du 5 novembre 1925 et rapportant celui du 8 mars 1927 relatifs aux conditions auxquelles doivent satisfaire, dans le départen ent de la Meuse, pour être agréées, en exécution des décrets du 13 juillet 1923, les caisses de compensation ou autres institutions constituées entre chefs d'entreprises en vue du service des allocations familiales. Du 19 mars 1927. (J. O., 1927, No. 67, p. 3145.)

Arrêté modifiant les arrêtés des 17 janvier, 10 décembre 1924 déterminant, pour les marchés de travaux publics à exécuter dans le département des Ardennes, les conditions auxquelles doivent satisfaire, pour être agréées, les cai ses de compensation ou autres institutions constituées entre chefs d'entreprises en vue du service des allocations familiales. Du 19 mars 1927. (J. O., 1927, No. 67, p. 3145.)

GERMANY

Gesetz über das zwischen der Deutschen und der Französischen Regierung und der Regierungskommission des Saargebiets vereinbarte Protokoll vom 14. September 1926 über die Regelung des Arbeiterverkehrs an der deutschsaarländischen Grenze. Vom 29. Januar 1927. (R. G. Bl., II, 1927, No. 6, p. 19.)

Gesetz zur Aenderung der Verordnung über die Fürsorge für erwerbslose Seeleute vom 30. Oktober 1924 (R. G. Bl. I, S. 722). Vom 21. Februar 1927. (R. G. Bl., I, 1927, No. 10, p. 65.)

Ergänzung der Ausführungsvorschriften zur Verordnung über Erwerbslosenfürsorge. Vom 22. Januar 1927. (R. G. Bl., I, 1927, No. 5, p. 50.)

Verordnung über Aenderung der Bestimmung von Berufsgruppen der Angestelltenversicherung. Vom 4. Februar 1927. (R. G. Bl., I, 1927, No. 7, p. 58.)

Sechste Verordnung über die Versicherung der in der Kauffahrteiflotte, auf Kabeldampfern und Schulschiffen sowie in der Hochseeschiffereiflotte beschäftigten, nach dem Vierten Buche der Reichsversicherungsordnung versicherungspflichtigen Personen. Vom 10. Februar 1927. (R. G. Bl., I, 1927, No. 11, p. 67.)

Lippe

Polizeiverordnung über die Anlage und Einrichtung von Lichtspieltheatern sowie für die Sicherheit von Lichtspielvorführungen. Vom 10. Januar 1927. (Lippische Gesetzsammlung, 1927, No. 2, p. 3.)

GREAT BRITAIN

The Explosives in Coal Mines Order of 7 January 1927. (S. R. & O., 1927, No. 10.)

Order in Council as to the exemption of Portuguese ships from the provisions of the Merchant Shipping Act, 1894 (57 & 58 Vic., ch. 60), as to life-saving appliances. Dated 7 February 1927. (S. R. & O., 1927, No. 62.)

ITALY

Regio decreto-legge 9 gennaio 1927, n. 5 : Modificazioni alla legge 3 aprile 1926, n. 2247, concernente la istituzione dell'Opera nazionale " Balilla " per l'assistenza e l'educazione fisica e morale della gioventù. (Numero di pubblicazione : 56.) (G. U., 1927, No. 8, p. 104.)

[Legislative Decree to amend Act No. 2247 of 3 April 1926 respecting the institution of the National Foundation " Balilla " for the assistance and physical and moral training of the young. Dated 9 January 1927.]

Regio decreto-legge 13 gennaio 1927, n. 31 : Facoltà all'Amministrazione delle poste e dei telegrafi di rendere continuativa la prestazione oraria supplementare nel limite di un'ora al giorno, per gli impiegati di ruolo addetti agli uffici esecutivi. (Numero di pubblicazione : 160). (G. U., 1927, No. 18, p. 297.)

[Royal Legislative Decree No. 31 authorising the Post and Telegraph Department to increase regularly the daily hours of work by one hour in case of permanent employees in the executive services. Dated 13 January 1927.]

Regio decreto 6 gennaio 1927, n. 7 : Sistemazione del personale avventizio femminile in servizio nell'Amministrazione postale e telegrafica con contratto a termine. (Numero di pubblicazione : 89.) (G. U., 1927, No. 11, p. 156.)

[Royal Decree No. 7 respecting the engagement under contracts for a fixed period of temporary women employees in the Postal and Telegraph Departments. Dated 6 January 1927.]

Regio decreto 6 gennaio 1927, n. 57 : Modificazioni agli articoli 51 e 52 del R. decreto 30 dicembre 1923, n. 2960, sullo stato giuridico degli impiegati dell'Amministrazione dello Stato. (Numero di pubblicazione : 235.) (G. U., 1927, No. 25, p. 481.)

[Royal Decree No. 57 to amend sections 51 and 52 of Royal Decree No. 2960 of 30 December 1923 respecting the conditions of service of salaried employees in State Departments. Dated 6 January 1927.]

Regio decreto 9 gennaio 1927, n. 6 : Approvazione dei regolamenti amministrativo e tecnico-disciplinare per l'esecuzione della legge 3 aprile 1926, n. 2247, sull'opera nazionale " Balilla ". (Numero di pubblicazione : 57.) (G. U., 1927, No. 8, p. 105.)

[Royal Decree No. 6 to approve the administrative and technical disciplinary regulations under Act No. 2247 of 3 April 1926 respecting the National Foundation " Balilla ". Dated 9 January 1927.]

LITHUANIA

Valstybes tarnautoju pensiju ir pasalpu istatymui vykdyti taisykliu pakeitimas. No. 1584. (Vyriausybes Zinios, 12 Januar 1927, No. 243, p. 2.)

[Amendment of the administrative provisions under the Act respecting the pensions and allowances of state officials. (No date.)]

LUXEMBURG

Loi du 25 février 1927, sur les logements.

Gesetz vom 25. Februar 1927 über die Wohnungen.

(Mémorial, 1927, No. 11, p. 147.)

Arrêté grand-ducal du 13 janvier 1927, concernant la majoration des traitements et salaires du personnel des chemins de fer luxembourgeois. (Mémorial, 1927, No. 2, p. 9.)

Arrêté grand-ducal du 9 février 1927, modifiant l'arrêté grand-ducal du 6 août 1921, portant réglementation des secours de chômage.

Grossh. Beschluss vom 9. Februar 1927, wodurch der Grossh. Beschluss vom 6. August 1921, betreffend die gesetzliche Regelung der Arbeitslosenunterstützungen, abgeändert wird.

(Mémorial, 1927, No. 6, p. 60.)

NETHERLANDS

Besluit van den 13. Januari 1927, tot wijziging van het Koninklijk besluit van den 12. September 1924 (Staatsblad No. 446) tot uitvoering van artikel 4, derde lid, der Ouderdomswet 1919. (Staatsblad, 1927, No. 5.)

[Decree to amend the Royal Decree of 12 September 1924 (Staatsblad No. 446) under section 4, subsection (3) of the Old-Age Act, 1919. Dated 13 January 1927.]

Besluit van den 20. Januari 1927, bepalende de bekendmaking in het Staatsblad van de op 23 October 1926 tusschen den Nederlandschen Gezant te Brussel en den Belgischen Minister van Buitenlandsche Zaken gewisselde nota's, betreffende de wederzijdsche overbrenging van verzoeken om rechtsbijstand op het gebied van ongevallenverzekering (Staatsblad 1922, No. 435.) (Staatsblad, 1927, No. 15.)

[Decree to provide for the publication in the Staatsblad of the Notes exchanged on 23 October 1926 between the Netherlands Ambassador in Brussels and the Belgian Minister for Foreign Affairs respecting the mutual communication of applications for legal assistance in connection with accident insurance (Staatsblad, 1922, No. 435). Dated 20 January 1927.]

PORTUGAL

Portaria No. 4813 : Suspende provisoriamente a emigraçao de operarios portugueses para França. 28 de Janeiro de 1927. (Diario do Govêrno, 1927, No. 25, p. 183.)

[Order of the Ministry of the Interior No. 4813 to suspend provisionally the emigration of Portuguese workers to France. Dated 28 January 1927.]

Decreto No. 13128 : Aprova o regulamento do decreto No. 12376, que criou o desembaraçao das capitanias par os navios estrangeiros que frequentam os portos portugueses. 4 de Fevereiro de 1927. (Diário do Govêrno, 1927, No. 28, p. 208.)

[Decree No. 13128 of the Minister of the Marine to approve the regulations under Decree No. 12376 which provide that the clearance of foreign ships in Portuguese harbours shall be effected by the port authorities (*capitanias*).]

RUMANIA

Lege pentru modificarea legii pentru organizarea si exploatarea C.F.R. 2 Fevruari 1927. (Monitorul Oficial, 1927, No. 25, p. 1321.)

[Act to amend the Act respecting the organisation and operation of the Rumanian State Railways. Dated 2 February 1927.]

Lege pentru Infiintarea Institutului de igiena si sanatate publica. 25 Fevruarie 1927. (Monitorul Oficial, 1927, No. 44, p. 2473.)

[Act to establish the Institute of Hygiene and Public Health. Dated 25 February 1927.]

Decret : se aproba regulament provitor la concesionarea, infiintarea, constructia, instalatia si functionarea cinematografelor in România. 27 Januarie 1927. (Monitorul Oficial, 1927, No. 27, p. 1453.)

[Decree issuing regulations for the licensing, establishment, construction, equipment, and operation of cinematograph theatres in Rumania. Dated 27 January 1927.]

Regulamentul Legii pentru Unificarea taxelor ce se percep la eliberarea titlurilor de capacitate profesionala. 26 Fevruarie 1927. (Monitorul Oficial, 1927, No. 48, p. 2731.)

[Regulations under the Act to provide for uniform fees for the issue of trade certificates and diplomas. Dated 26 February 1927.]

SPAIN

Real decreto determinando los servicios que corresponden a la Junta Central y a la Dirección general de Acción Social Agraria. 7 de enero de 1927. (Gaceta de Madrid, 1926, No. 12, p. 250.)

[Royal Decree to specify the duties of the Central Board and the General Directorate of Agrarian Development and Welfare. Dated 7 January 1927.]

Real orden aprobando el Reglamento, que se inserta, para el orden y funcionamiento interior de la Comisión permanente de Enseñanza Industrial. 20 de enero de 1927. (Gaceta de Madrid, 1927, No. 36, p. 790.)

[Decree to approve the rules for the working of the permanent committee for industrial instruction. Dated 20 January 1927.]

Real orden aprobando con carácter provisional el Reglamento, que se inserta, de inversiones sociales. 29 de enero de 1927. (Gaceta de Madrid, 1927, No. 39, p. 858.)

[Decree to approve the provisional regulations for "social" investments. Dated 29 January 1927.]

Real orden resolviendo solicitudes de los Comités Paritarios de la Prensa de Madrid y Barcelona, relativos a la aplicación del descanso dominical. 23 de febrero de 1927. (Gaceta de Madrid, 1927, No. 55, p. 1148.)

[Order respecting petitions presented by the Madrid and Barcelona joint press committees respecting the application of the weekly rest. Dated 23 February 1927.]

SWEDEN

Kungl. Maj:ts kungörelse angaende ändrad lydelse av § 14 i förordningen den 12 november 1880 (nr 64) angaende skeppsmätning. Den 28 januari 1927. (Svensk Författningssamling, 1927, No. 12, p. 21.)

[Royal Notification to amend section 14 of the Order of 12 November 1880 (No. 64) respecting ship surveying. Dated 28 January 1927.]

Kungl. Maj:ts kungörelse angaende ändred lydelse av § 56 i instruktionen för skeppsmätare den 12 november 1880 (nr 66). 28 januari 1927. (Svensk Författningssamling, 1927, No. 13, p. 22.)

[Royal Notification to amend section 56 of the instructions of 12 November 1880 (No. 66) for ships' surveyors. Dated 28 January 1927.]

UNION OF SOUTH AFRICA

Government Notice No. 98: amendments in Public Service Regulations [under Public Service and Pensions Act, 1923]. Dated 21 January 1927. (Union of South Africa Government Gazette, 1927, Vol. LXVII, No. 1601, p. 131.)

Government Notice No. 226, under section eighty-eight of the Railways and Harbours Service Act, 1912, and section forty-two of the Railways and Harbours Superannuation Fund Act, 1925, to approve of the amended joint regulations of the Administration of the Railways and Harbours Superannuation Fund and the new Railways and Harbours Superannuation Fund. Dated 11 February 1927. (Union of South Africa Government Gazette, 1927, Vol. LXVII, No. 1605, p. 263.)

Book Notes

INTERNATIONAL PUBLICATIONS

Permanent Court of International Justice. *Special Agreement for Arbitration signed at Geneva 12 October 1926, on behalf of the Government of the French Republic, and of the Government of the Turkish Republic.* (*Lotus Case.*) Leyden, A. W. Sijthoff, 1927. 11 pp.

—— *Request for Advisory Opinion transmitted to the Court under the Resolution of the Council of the League of Nations of 9 December 1926, with the text of that Resolution. Competence of the European Commission of the Danube.* Leyden, A.W. Sijthoff, 1926. 15 pp.

Association internationale pour la protection de la propriété industrielle. *Travaux du groupe français* (*No. 2*), *1923-1925.* Paris, Bélin Frères, 1925. 93 pp.

Since the issue of its first report, the French group of the International Association for the Protection of Industrial Property has continued its labours, more especially the study of proposed amendments and additions (for introduction at the time of the Hague revision) to the Convention of the Union for the Protection of Industrial Property.

The French group, in plenary session on 15 November 1923, discussed measures drafted on similar lines by a Commission of the League of Nations and by the International Chamber of Commerce. At the second plenary session, on 4 December 1923, the study of the International Chamber of Commerce programme with a view to amending the Convention of the Union was continued ; suggestions received from the German group, which has undergone reconstitution and is again functioning, were also examined.

The present Report contains the Minutes of the 1923 and 1924 meetings, together with the texts of the Union Convention and of the Madrid Arrangements, with the counter-suggestions of the French group.

League of Red Cross Societies. *Report of the Oslo Conference convened by the Norwegian Red Cross Society and the League of Red Cross Societies on the Health of the Merchant Seaman, June 28th-July 5th, 1926.* Paris, A. Delrieu, 1926. 216 pp.

This is the official Report of the International Conference on the Health of the Merchant Seaman, held under the auspices of the League of Red Cross Societies in Norway last summer, at which the International Labour Office, the Health Organisation of the League of Nations and the International Transport Workers' Federation, among others, were represented (cf. *Industrial and Labour Information*, Vol. XIX, No. 5, p. 179, No. 10, p. 378).

In addition to the records of the proceedings of the Conference and the texts of resolutions adopted, the Report contains a certain number of memoranda presented by national Red Cross Societies and the Health Authorities, together with a general "Memorandum on International Efforts for the benefit of the Sailor", by Dr. F. Humbert, Director of the Health Section, League of Red Cross Societies.

OFFICIAL PUBLICATIONS

AUSTRALIA

The Forest Resources of the Territories of Papua and New Guinea. Report by C. E. Lane-Poole. Victoria, Government Printer, 1925. 209 pp. 7s. 6d.

A technical report on the forest resources of the Territories of Papua and New Guinea and on the possibilities of their economic development. It contains, however, one or two interesting references to the part which an adequate forest policy

might play in native development. It is pointed out that the transition from the conditions of the stone age in which the aboriginal native lives to those of the new environment created by the white man is too sudden, and that a properly conceived forest policy, carrying with it a general planting campaign, would be free from many of the objections put forward against coastal plantations on which natives from high altitudes are often placed to the detriment of their health. If the establishment of small wood-working industries were included in the scheme, it would afford the native opportunities of learning trades and encourage the establishment of native industries. "The native is very apt so far as mechanical work is concerned, and I have seen a full-blooded native do as good breaking down through twin saws, and benching over a 6-feet saw, as a white man."

QUEENSLAND

Department for Agriculture and Stock. *Report by the Director to the Council of Agriculture under "The Primary Producers' Organisation Act of 1922" (Embracing a review of the operations of the year ending 30 June 1926).* Brisbane, 1926. 34 pp. 1s. 6d.

A change of considerable importance has taken place in the organisation of Queensland farmers. Under the original Primary Producers Organisation Act, 1922, local associations, district councils, and a central Council of Agriculture were set up. The local associations continue, but the district councils have been replaced by commodity councils, i.e. by bodies representative of, and elected by, growers of a particular crop or product (sugar, dairy produce, etc.). The financial powers of the central Council have now passed to these commodity boards which thus become the pivot of the system under which farming in Queensland has become a self-administered industry dealing with its own economic and industrial problems. A fuller account of the changes introduced is given in *Industrial and Labour Information*, Vol. XXI, No. 12. The number of farmers registered was, at the date of reporting, 28,444. The cost of financing the agricultural organisation was 13s. 11d. to each farmer, which is stated to be "much under the cost of voluntary organisations in the Southern States" of Australia.

BULGARIA

Ministerstvo na obchtestv. sgradi, patichta ; blagooustroïstvo. *Glavna direktsia na troudovata povinost. Godichen otchet za deinosta ; imouchestvenoto y sastainie 1925-1926 finansova godina.* Sofia, 1926. 41 pp.

Report of the Bulgarian General Directorate of Compulsory Labour Service for the financial year 1925-1926.

CANADA

Department of Labour. *Prices in Canada and Other Countries 1926.* Issued as a Supplement to *The Labour Gazette*, January 1927. Ottawa. 32 pp.

Price statistics for important commodities entering into the cost of living are given for each month during 1926. Comparisons are made with previous dates from 1913 onwards. Statistics of the movements of wholesale prices are also given.

— *Proceedings of the Fourteenth Annual Meeting of the International Association of Public Employment Services held at Montreal, Quebec, 16-18 September, 1926.* Ottawa, 1927. 85 pp.

This report contains among other things a number of papers, presented by officials of the public employment services and other specialists in different aspects of unemployment, discussing such problems as the supply of labour for harvest purposes, the supply of labour in the lumber, pulp and paper industries, cycles of unemployment, public employment services and the placing of handicapped workers, children and juveniles, the position of women in industry, etc.

—— *Wages and Hours of Labour in Canada 1920 to 1926.* Report No. 10. Issued as a Supplement to *The Labour Gazette*, January 1927. Ottawa, 1927. 62 pp.

Tables are given showing the wage rates of typical categories of workers in the building, metal, and printing trades, transport, municipal service, mining, etc. Figures are included for each of the principal towns in the different provinces for

the years 1920 to 1926 inclusive. Sample rates of wages are also given for a number of other industries. Index numbers showing the movement of money rates of wages in the chief industries are given for the period 1901 to 1926. The average for 1926 shows a slight rise (nearly 1 per cent.) over the average for the previous year, and is about 75 per cent. higher than in 1913.

MANITOBA

Department of Education. *Report of the Department of Education for the year ending June 30th 1926.* Winnipeg, 1926. 104 pp.

CHILE

Ministerio de Higiene, Asistencia, Prevision social y Trabajo. *El problema social en la zona salitrera.* Santiago, 1926. 35 pp.

Describes briefly the conditions of workers in the saltpetre industry and suggests measures to ameliorate these conditions.

—— *Los servicios de prevision social en Francia y Alemania.* By Clara Yanquez de Brieba. Santiago, 1926. 36 pp.

Short study on the systems of social assistance in force in France and in Germany.

DENMARK

Centralarbejdsanvisningskontoret psykotekniske Afdeling. *Beretning, 1 Juli 1924 — 1 September 1926.* Copenhagen, 1926. 58 pp.

Report on the first two years activity of the Psycho technical Department of the Central Employment Exchange at Copenhagen.

In the course of the experimental two-year period during which the Psychotechnical Department has now functioned, tests were undertaken for the following trades: smiths and mechanics, lithographers (printers and draughtsmen), bookprinters (compositors), clerks, chauffeurs and motormen.

In order to ascertain the necessary aptitudes for these trades, the Department drew up 50 written tests, constructed 26 apparatuses and arranged 12 working tests.

The Department examined approximately 2,000 persons. Of this number 1,575 were apprentices seeking work, and 130 were clerks, of whom 67 were employed by the municipality of Copenhagen, while the remainder were persons who placed themselves at the disposal of the Department for experimental purposes.

During the period mentioned the Department co-operated with teachers and parents; its advisory activity was therefore based upon co-ordinated information derived from the school, the home, and the psychotechnical and medical examination of each particular boy.

As a result of investigations made to determine how far vocational guidance has been successful in accomplishing its purpose, i.e. to place apprentices in the trades for which they are best qualified, the report shows that, so far as concerns 240 boys whose masters submitted reports after the boys had been in apprenticeship from six months to one year, 90 per cent. were described as "average" or good, barely 8 per cent. as "poor" and only 2 per cent. as very poor. With regard to the psychotechnical tests, a comparison between the Technical School's appraisal of 48 apprentices and that of the Psycho technical Department shows complete agreement in 41 cases, a slight deviation in 4 and disagreement in only 3 instances.

The medical examination comprised 1,969 cases. In 285 cases the consulting physician found it advisable to intervene and advise trades other than those originally selected.

FINLAND

Tilastollinen Päätoimisto, Socialitilastollinen Osasto. *Elinkustannukset tiliopitokaudella 1920-21.* Suomen Virallinen Tilasto XXXII. Sosialisia erikoistutkimuksia V. **Statistiska Centralbyran, Socialstatistiske avdelningen.** *Levnadskostnaderna under bokföringsperioden 1920-1921.* Finlands officielle statistik XXXII. Sociala specialundersökningar V. Helsingfors, Valtioneuvoston kirjapaino, 1925, 112 + 83 pp.

With a view to arriving at a new and reliable basis for establishing cost-of-living

index numbers, the Social Statistics Section of the Finnish Central Statistical Office instituted an enquiry into the cost of living in Finland during 1920-21. The results are given in the above volume, the fifth of a series devoted to special enquiries on social questions.

The investigation is based on family budgets of wage earners and salaried employees for one year as shown in account books distributed by the municipal authorities in towns and rural districts. From the information thus gathered it was possible to determine the income and expenditure of families of various classes in the different localities, details of expenditure on food, the amount of the principal foodstuffs consumed and their nutritive value. The latter item is estimated according to the number of calories in the different foods, and its determination, a recent innovation in enquiries of this nature, enables the cost of food for a given number of calories to be calculated. The text and the headings to the tables are given in Finnish and in Swedish and a summary in French is included.

Tilastollinen Päätoimisto. Sosialitilastollinen Osasto. *Työssä sattuneet tapaturmat vuonna 1922.* Suomen Virallinen Tilasto XXVI. Työtilastoa A : 19. **Statistiska Centralbyran Socialstatistiska Avdelningen.** *Olycksfallen i arbete ar 1922.* Finlands Officiella Statistik XXVI. Arbetsstatistik A : 19. Helsingfors, Valtioneuvosten kirjapaino, 1926. 114 pp.

The report on industrial accidents in Finland for 1922 follows the plan adopted in former reports. The first part deals with accidents in industrial establishments ; the second, less voluminous, with accidents to seamen serving in Finnish ships. The information supplied includes the number of accidents arranged according to industry, causes, nature and seat of injury, duration and degree of incapacity, age of injured persons, month, day of the week and hour. The frequency and severity rates of accidents in all industries increased during 1922 as compared with 1921. The frequency rate rose from 52.3 to 57.6 accidents per 1,000 full-time workers and the severity rate from 7.60 to 9.04 working days lost per worker.

The text of the report is in Finnish and in Swedish ; a summary in French is included.

GERMANY

Ministerium für Handel und Gewerbe. Landesgewerbeamt. *VII. Verwaltungsbericht über das Gewerbliche Schulwesen und die Gewerbeförderung in Preussen 1926.* Berlin, Carl Heymanns Verlag, 1926. 454 pp.

The sixth report of the Prussian Labour Office was published in 1920. The seventh, issued in 1926, describes the development of vocational schools and industrial progress from the return to normal conditions after the war down to the spring of 1926. As in former reports issued by the Labour Office, a general part is devoted to legal measures and regulations relating to vocational training, and chapters are included dealing with vocational schools for boys, commercial training, vocational and technical schools for girls, arts and crafts schools, and technical schools for special branches of industry or administration. A chapter devoted to vocational guidance and placing of apprentices is included for the first time.

Reichsarbeitsverwaltung. *Die Tarifverträge im Deutschen Reiche am 1. Januar 1925, nebst einem Anhange : Die Reichstarifverträge am 1. Januar 1926.* 35. Sonderheft zum Reichsarbeitsblatt. Berlin, Reimar Hobbing, 1926. 19 + 51 pp.

Statistics of collective agreements have acquired increasing importance in Germany on account of the rapid development of collective bargaining which has taken place since the revolution. A new and comprehensive method of collecting material and compiling statistical tables has been employed since 1920. The present issue of these statistics gives the number of collective agreements concluded or renewed in 1924, and that of agreements in force on 1 January 1925, as well as the total number of such agreements containing similar provisions but covering several organisations. The agreements, with the corresponding numbers of establishments and workers covered, have been classified according to industry, nature of contracting parties, method of conclusion, extent of application, and duration of validity. It may be noted that these statistics are not confined to the presentation of the formal aspects of collective agreements as such, but also

contain information upon conditions of employment as regulated by them, viz., weekly hours of work, annual holidays, organs of conciliation and arbitration, labour exchanges, period of notice to be observed in individual labour contracts, piece work rates, apprenticeship, etc. The statistics relating to the year 1924 are of particular interest, as very little information was published for 1923, and the year covered represents an intermediate period between inflation and stabilisation of money. An appendix to the report contains a list of national agreements in force at the beginning of the year 1926.

PRUSSIA

Ministerium für Handel und Gewerbe. Grubensicherheitsamt. *Das Grubensicherheitswesen in Preussen im Jahre 1925.* Fünfter Preussischer Grubensicherheitsbericht. Reprint from *Zeitschrift für das Berg-, Hütten- und Salinenwesen*, No. 74, 1926. Berlin, 1926. 90 pp.

A review of safety organisation together with statistics of accidents in the mines in Prussia during 1925.

GREAT BRITAIN

Board of Education. Welsh Department. *Education in Wales. Statistics of Public Education for the year 1924-1925.* London, H.M. Stationery Office, 1926. x + 95 pp. 6s.

The last volume of educational statistics for Wales related to the period 1921-1922. The present volume contains detailed figures for the period 1924-1925, to which have been added, in view of the non-publication of statistics for the two intervening years, total figures for those years wherever practicable.

Committee of the Privy Council for Medical Research. *Report of the Medical Research Council for the year 1925-1926.* London, H.M. Stationery Office, 1926. 161 pp. 3s. 6d.

The twelfth annual report of the Medical Research Council contains, like former reports, an account of the scientific research work accomplished during the period reviewed and carried out with the increased resources which co-operative efforts in particular fields and financial aid from private sources have brought the Council.

Attention is called to the collaboration with other departments and organisations, more especially the Dental Board of the United Kingdom, the Miners' Welfare Fund, the British Empire Cancer Campaign, and the Distemper Research Council of the *Field* newspaper.

An important part of the report is devoted to the determination of biological standards and the methods of biological assay and measurement (production of standard cultures and sera, etc.). A chapter on industrial medicine and industrial fatigue calls attention to the work of the Industrial Fatigue Research Board, of which the annual reports are analysed in the *Review*.

Committee on Education and Industry (England and Wales). *Report.* First Part. London, H.M. Stationery Office, 1926. 115 pp. 1s. 6d.

The first part of a report drawn up by a Committee appointed " to inquire into and advise upon the public system of education in England and Wales in relation to the requirements of trade and industry, with particular reference to the adequacy of the arrangements for enabling young persons to enter into and retain suitable employment. "

The volume under consideration deals with the questions arising under the second part of the Terms of Reference. A large number of recommendations are set out in the concluding pages. The Committee draw attention, among other points, to the desirability of setting up a National Advisory Council for Juvenile Employment on which local education authorities should be strongly represented, of encouraging psychological tests designed to determine suitability for particular employment, of raising the school-leaving age, of introducing as soon as possible the necessary legislation to give effect to a scheme of working certificates, and of making adequate grants to local education authorities for their approved expenditure on the different services, etc.

Department of Overseas Trade. *Report on the Commercial, Economic and Financial Conditions in Peru.* Dated October 1926. By J. P. TRANT. London, H.M. Stationery Office, 1927. 63 pp. 2s. 0d.

Foreign Office. *League of Nations. Forty-Third Session of the Council.* Report by the Right Hon. Sir Austen CHAMBERLAIN, K.G., M.P., British Representative. Miscellaneous No. 1 (1927). London, H.M. Stationery Office, 1927. 4d.

Imperial Conference 1926. Appendices to the Summary of Proceedings. Cmd. 2769. London, H.M. Stationery Office, 1927. 446 pp. 4s.

Contains the speeches of the different Prime Ministers and the reports of the Sub-Committees appointed by the Conference. The subjects of these reports include questions connected with the Permanent Mandates Commission of the League of Nations, nationality, oversea settlement, workmen's compensation, research, forestry, and general economic questions. The reports on oversea settlement and workmen's compensation are analysed at some length in the *Monthly Record of Migration* for December 1926, p. 484, and March 1927.

Ministry of Agriculture and Fisheries. *Report of Proceedings under the Allotments Acts, 1908 to 1925, for the Year 1925.* London, H.M. Stationery Office, 1926. 12 pp. 6d.

The new Allotments Act 1925 allows of the purchase of land for allotments by means of public loans to approved societies, requires consideration of the reservation of land for allotments in connection with town-planning schemes, abolishes the former condition under which allotment schemes started by local authorities had each to be financially self-supporting, and requires Ministerial consent before land once purchased for allotments by a local authority can be used for other purposes. All four amendments are likely to be very useful to the allotments movement. Information is given on the number of allotments, demand for allotments, etc.

SCOTLAND

Board of Agriculture for Scotland. *Report of the Committee appointed by the Board of Agriculture for Scotland in February 1925, to examine and report on Questions of Farm Accounting and Economics.* Edinburgh, H.M. Stationery Office, 1926. 34 pp. 9d.

This interesting report, though of no great length, goes into many of the more disputed questions relating to cost accounting in agriculture. The difficulty of ascertaining the cost of production of agricultural products made itself painfully felt in Great Britain during the war, when such knowledge would have been of great value to those responsible for watching the prices of commodities to the public. As a result, the Cost Accounting Committee was set up in 1919. The economy axe, however, soon cut short these efforts ; and in Scotland the subject remained in abeyance until February 1925, when a Committee of six persons (under the chairmanship of the Deputy Commissioner of the Board of Agriculture) was set up to examine and report on methods, and to indicate the principal problems in connection with which farm accounting would be of real use. In the course of its investigation the Committee undertakes a fairly comprehensive survey of the whole question ; and its comparative analysis of Danish, Swedish, Swiss, and American methods of farm accounting is likely to be useful from an international point of view. In its recommendations it inclines to the Danish, Swedish, and Swiss method of drawing up accounts with the whole farm as a basis ; it indicates, however, that ' analytic ' accounting for separate crops, on the English and American systems, is by no means impossible, especially in the case of certain staple products like milk. It is to be hoped that the work of the Committee will be effective in stimulating the keeping of farm accounts in Scotland, as it is only on the basis of such farm accounting that the finance of agriculture can be scientifically investigated.

KENYA

Medical Department. *The Housing of African Natives on Farms and Estates.* Health Pamphlet No. 3. Nairobi. 10 pp., 4 plans.

The purpose of this pamphlet is to give a brief indication of the construction

and design of houses for African labourers, with special reference to the prevention of disease and consequent economical use of the available labour force. It is emphasised that labour in Kenya is drawn from an unfit population whose resistance to infectious disease is very feeble ; and that to improve the physical condition of the labourer by better housing as well as by better feeding is the most immediate method of overcoming any inadequacy in the labour supply, since in this way more and better work can be obtained from a smaller number of labourers.

INDIA

The Eighth and Ninth International Labour Conferences. Bulletin No. 38, *Indian Industries and Labour*, 1926. 48 pp.

This Bulletin contains the Report of Sir Atul Chatterjee, Senior Indian Government Delegate, on the Eighth and Ninth Sessions of the International Labour Conference. The decisions of both Sessions are quoted textually as an Appendix.

NEW ZEALAND

Department of Lands and Survey. *Annual Report on Settlement of Crown Lands.* Wellington, 1926. 35 pp. 1s.

Nearly 30 per cent. of the land area of the Dominion of New Zealand is held under Crown leases or licenses. During the year ended 31 March 1926, Crown lessees and tenants increased by 1390, to a total of 35,946 persons, and the area leased or held by them by 347,716 acres, to a total of 19,879,653 acres. The importance of the land policy to be pursued by the Dominion is thus demonstrated. Current information, including statistics and a note on legislation, will be found in the present report. It is stated that the opening up of further undeveloped areas can only proceed slowly. A minor point of interest is the expenditure of over £20,000 on preservation of scenery ; on this subject a special parliamentary paper is issued.

Education Department. (1) *Report of the Minister of Education for the year ending 31st December, 1925.* 26 pp. 9d. (2) *Primary Education.* 46 pp. 1s. (3) *Technical Education.* 16 pp. 6d. (4) *Secondary Education.* 46 pp. 1s. (5) *Higher Education.* 36 pp. 9d. (6) *Teachers' Superannuation Fund.* 27 pp. 9d. Wellington, 1926.

One chapter of the Minister of Education's report for 1925 is devoted to the administration of the Child Welfare Act.

POLAND

Glowny Urzad Statystyczny. *Spodzielnie w Polsce w Latach 1924 i 1925.* Warsaw, 1926. 44 pp.

Statistics relating to co-operative societies in Poland for 1924 and 1925 published by the Polish Statistical Office. A summary and headings to the tables are given in French.

SWEDEN

K. Socialstyrelsen i Samverkan med Stockholm Stads Statistiska Kontor. *Statistisk Undersökning angaende Levnadskostnaderna i Stockholm 1922-1923.* Stockholms Stads Statistik. X. Specialundersökningar. Nr. 13.

Enquête statistique sur les budgets de ménage à Stockholm 1922-1923. Statistique de la Ville de Stockholm. X. Enquêtes Spéciales. No. 13. Stockholm, K. L. Beckmanns, 1927. 13 pp.

Statistics of family budgets in Stockholm, 1922-1923.

SWITZERLAND

Département fédéral de l'Economie publique. Division de l'Agriculture. *Les améliorations foncières de la Suisse 1913-1924.* (*Das Bodenverbesserungswesen der Schweiz 1913-1924*). Bern-Bümpliz, Benteli, 1925. 258 pp.

This publication presents a detailed report from each Swiss Canton on land improvements undertaken since 1913. This is preceded by a short general introduction by the Federal Division of Agriculture. All land improvements in Swit-

zerland rest on the Agricultural Act of 1893, the revision of which is under discussion but has been deferred owing to financial stringency. On the whole, the Act, supplemented by various Federal Decrees and by Cantonal legislation, has worked exceedingly well, though it is, in general, clear that without some effective Cantonal initiative little is accomplished. The fresh impulse given to all improvement works in the last few years is very marked. The details on finance are interesting, and some illuminating maps of restriping are inserted in more than one of the Cantonal reports. Indeed, the work done on restriping is perhaps the most interesting of all that has been undertaken. The German, French, and Italian languages are used in this publication, according to the language in use in the Canton presenting each report.

UNITED STATES

Conditions in the Philippine Islands. Message from the President of the United States transmitting a report by Colonel Carmi A. Thompson on the conditions in the Philippine Islands together with suggestions with reference to the administrative and economic development of the Islands. Senate Document No. 180, 69th Congress, Second Session. Washington, Govt. Printing Office, 1926. 10 pp.

Colonel Thompson, at the request of the President of the United States of America, visited the Philippine Islands in 1926, to examine and report on conditions, especially with reference to the administration and economic development of the Islands.

Colonel Thompson considers that the fundamental problem in the Philippines is political, and it is with this subject that his report is primarily concerned. With regard to the economic conditions, he appears to believe that the development of certain products is desirable in the interests of the inhabitants of the Philippine Islands and advantageous to the United States of America. Of these products, rubber promises to be the most important. Colonel Thompson's opinion is that while on the whole " rubber can be and should be raised in the Philippines by small planters, it will probably be necessary to encourage the development of a few larger estates in the beginning ". To effect this, he recommends that the Philippine legislature " should amend the Philippine land laws (with proper safeguards) so as to bring about such conditions as will attract capital and business experience for the development " of production.

As regards labour, Colonel Thompson reports that Philippine labour is without sufficient employment and is emigrating to Hawaii, the United States, and other countries. Should rubber development prosper, however, this problem will probably solve itself, and later, the means of securing an adequate supply of labour will become a matter for serious consideration.

In his message to Congress submitting Colonel Thompson's report, the President states that while he does not agree entirely with all the views and recommendations, he believes that the report is excellent and merits careful consideration.

Department of Agriculture. *Agriculture Yearbook 1925.* Washington, Govt. Printing Office, 1926. v + 1,537 pp.

The present number of the Agricultural Yearbook consists, as usual, of three parts : i. e., the report for the year of the Secretary of Agriculture, articles contributed by the Bureaux of the Department, and statistics. In the present issue the articles deal with various aspects of the fruit and vegetable growing industry.

The statistics, which cover nearly 800 pages, assemble a mass of information on both the technical and economic aspects of agriculture, the latter under the heading " Miscellaneous Agricultural Statistics ". These have been extended since the previous year, notably to include a table of index numbers of farm wage-rates, on the basis 1910-1914 = 100 ; moreover, two new sections have been added, a summary of farm management surveys (71,515 farms), and a survey of information of family living from the farm, 1918-1922, i.e. of food produced and consumed on the farm. The summary of farm management surveys gives information on the capital sunk in farming, receipts, expenses, " farm income " (i.e. difference between receipts and expenses), " labour income " (i.e. farm income less interest on capital, or, in other words, the farmer's reward for his labour and management), the rate of interest earned by capital, and the reward (*a*) for the farmer's own labour, and (*b*) the unpaid labour of his family.

Department of Commerce. Bureau of Foreign and Domestic Commerce. *Statistical Abstract of the United States 1925.* Washington, Govt. Printing Office, 1926. xvi + 846 pp. $1.00.

Department of Labour. Bureau of Labour Statistics. *Labour Cost of Production and Wages and Hours of Labour in the Paper Box-Board Industry.* Bulletin No. 407, Wages and Hours of Labour Series. Washington, Govt. Printing Office, 1926. iii + 89 pp. 15 cents.

In part I, statistics are given showing for seven paper box-board mills investigated by the Bureau of Labor Statistics, the effects mainly of the introduction of the three-shift system on output and labour costs of production. The data show the position for a given period in 1924 before the introduction of the three-shift system and for a corresponding period in 1925 after its introduction. The effect of changing from the two-shift to the three-shift system was an increase of 11.1 per cent. in output per man-hour. There was an average decrease of 10.2 per cent. in the time required to produce a ton of paper box-board and an increase of 0.7 per cent. in the money cost of labour to produce that quantity. The labour cost per man-hour increased by 12.2 per cent. The effects on full-time earnings of the introduction of the three-shift system are shown. Data are also given which show the effects in four establishments of a reduction in the number of working days per week from six to five.

Part II of the bulletin gives data relating to hours of labour and earnings and to machinery in the year 1925 in 70 different establishments. Average full-time hours per week are shown to have been 54.3 and average full-time earnings per week 28.07 dollars. Workers whose full-time hours per week were 60 and over constituted 34 per cent. of the number employed. Details are given by occupation and State.

—— —— *Wages and Hours of Labour in Foundries and Machine Shops, 1925.* Bulletin No. 422, Wages and Hours of Labour Series. Washington, Govt. Printing Office, 1927. iii + 159 pp. 25 cents.

Detailed statistics are given by State and occupation for the year 1925 and comparisons are made of average earnings and hours of labour in 1923 and 1925. The results are based on data obtained from a number of establishments in each State in which the industry is of sufficient importance to represent conditions in those States and in the country as a whole. Average full-time hours per week for males in foundries in the United States in 1925 were 51.5, and in machine shops 50.4. Average full-time earnings per week for males in all occupations combined were $31.52 in foundries and $30.44 in machine shops.

—— **Employment Service.** *Industrial, Agricultural and General Employment Prospects for 1927.* Based on Information received from Federal-State Directors of the U. S. Employment Service and Commissioners of Labour. Washington, Govt. Printing Office, 1927. 18 pp.

ILLINOIS

City of Chicago. Department of Public Welfare. *The Year's Work. 500 Lodgers of the City. Rents. Annual Report 1926.* Chicago, 1926. 52 pp.

NON-OFFICIAL PUBLICATIONS

Academy of Political Science. *Proceedings of the Academy of Political Science in the City of New York.* Vol. XII, No. 1, July 1926. *International Problems and Relations.* New York, Columbia University, 1926. xi + 500 pp.

Contains the report of the National Conference on International Problems and Relations, held under the auspices of the Carnegie Endowment for International Peace, with the co-operation of the Academy of Political Science. The Conference, held in New York 10-14 May 1926, dealt in succession with disarmament and security, raw materials in relation to international peace and economic prosperity, the Far East, the Danubian and Balkan States, economic adjustments and the

French debt, international problems of Latin America, international co-operation for the promotion of public health and social welfare, and America's part in international co-operation, as well as certain special topics.

Among the addresses reported, that of Dr. W. MARTIN may be specially mentioned ; it contains an excellent précis of the general characteristics, origin, organisation, objects and evolution of the International Labour Organisation.

—— *Proceedings of the Academy of Political Science in the City of New York.* Vol. XII, No. 2, January 1927. *Problems of Prosperity.* New York, 1927. XII + 145 pp.

A volume containing a number of excellent articles on the better economic organisation of agriculture, instalment purchasing — its merits and demerits, and the prospects of industrial civilisation ; prefaced by a Report of the Forty-sixth Annual Meeting of the Academy of Political Science, held in New York on 17 November 1926.

American Institute of Co-operation. *American Co-operation : A Collection of Papers and Discussions comprising the First Summer Session of the American Institute of Co-operation, at the University of Pennsylvania, 1925.* 2 Vols. X + 664 pp. and VI + 739 pp.

—— *American Co-operation : A Collection of Papers and Discussions comprising the Second Summer Session of the American Institute of Co-operation at the University of Minnesota, 1926.* 2 Vols. XII + 669 and VII + 719 pp.

These volumes contain all the papers and reports of selected conferences and discussions of the first and second summer sessions of the American Institute of Co-operation held in 1925 and 1926. Following on a statement of the origin, purposes and administration of the American Institute of Co-operation, given by the Chairman, the various aspects of the co-operative movement are discussed by a number of competent authorities. These papers comprise a valuable collection of information regarding the progress, legal basis, present status and problems of the co-operative movement among the farmers of the United States.

American Management Association. *Employee Representation Technique, Proceedings of the Conference at Chicago, 18-19 November 1926.* Production Executives' Series, No. 49. New York, 1926. 68 pp.

Apella, or the Future of the Jews. By a Quarterly Reviewer. To-day and To-morrow Series. London, Kegan Paul, Trench, Trübner and Co. ; New York, E.P. Dutton and Co. 95 pp.

Arendts, Carl. *Das Reichsversorgungsgesetz.* Berlin, Julius Springer, 1926. XXXI + 536 pp. 30 marks.

An exhaustive description of the conditions under which compensation is ensured by German law to mutilated ex-service men and their dependants. It appeals especially to all who are interested in the practical solution found by Germany for the complex problems arising out of the necessity for reconciling the exercise of the right to compensation with the tax-paying powers of the nation. The author not only proceeds to a methodical analysis of the provisions in force, but in many instances also establishes comparisons between the provisions of the present compensation Act and those of previous Acts, or of Acts relating to social insurance, old-age pensions, etc.

The principal legal or administrative decisions arrived at are quoted in the author's notes, which also contain references to the preparatory work done. The book will be extremely useful to jurists, officials, and war-victims alike.

Arndt, Dr. Paul. *Lohngesetz und Lohntarif.* Frankfort-on-the-Main, Blazek and Bergmann, 1926. 201 pp.

The main object of this book, to which attention was drawn in the March issue of the *International Labour Review*, is practical : it aims at defining the conditions of a reasonable settlement of wages, which is considered to be the most important industrial problem of the present time. For this purpose the author examines both the theory of wages (" wage law ") and the practical determination of wages

by collective agreements (" wage tariffs "). In both directions, however, the discussion exceeds considerably the original scope of the book. In successive chapters the nature of " economic laws " in general, the different theories of wages since Adam Smith (three-fifths of the book), the objects and effects of collective wage agreements, and the increase of wages by combination, are dealt with. The main thesis of the author is as follows. The best explanation of wages is, he considers, the " productivity theory " as formulated by Dietzel. This amounts to the simple argument that the movement of wages depends entirely on the movement of national production, i.e. that " wages rise and fall with productivity ". From this the practical inference is that, as the " law of productivity " operates without hindrance, " there is only one great, sure, effective means of increasing wages, viz., to increase the productivity of labour ". While rejecting Brentano's theory according to which combination and trade unionism represent the principal means of increasing the wage level, the author nevertheless concedes that the task of the trade union is to render the possible increase of wages a reality.

Arnot, R. Page. *The General Strike, May 1926 : Its Origin and History.* London, Labour Research Department, 1926. 245 pp.

A sketch by a member of the British Communist Party of the twelve months preceding the so-called General Strike in Great Britain, and a day-by-day account of the events of the twelve days it lasted.

Babaud, L. and Courtot, G. *L'application des règlements du travail à l'usage des entrepreneurs, chefs de chantiers, ouvriers du bâtiment et des travaux publics.* Nancy, Paris, Strasbourg, Berger-Levrault, 1927. 87 pp. 3.75 frs + 20 per cent.

This manual explains the application of labour regulations and is designed for the use of employers, workers and foremen in the building industry and in public works. The provisions included relate to the hiring of labour, the employment of minors, hours of work, the weekly rest day, health and safety of workers, industrial accidents, family allowances, payment of wages, the truck system and provision of canteens. Particulars are given on the formalities to be observed when applying for permits to work overtime in liberated regions as well as in other parts of France, on the posting up of notices of working hours, and on regulations concerning the keeping of registers.

Bjanes, O. T. *Norwegian Agriculture.* Oslo, Cappelens Forlag, 1926. 123 pp., illustr.

This book gives a brief survey of agriculture in Norway. According to the preface it is mainly intended for foreigners seeking information on that subject. Most stress has been laid in describing the official measures taken for the advancement of agriculture.

The chapters on : " Redistribution of Intermixed Holdings ", " Agricultural Education ", and " New Cultivation and Colonisation ", may be mentioned as specially interesting.

Boody, Bertha M. *A Psychological Study of Immigrant Children at Ellis Island.* Mental Measurement Monographs, Serial No. 3. Baltimore, Williams and Wilkins Company, 1926. 163 pp.

This is one of a series of mental measurement monographs on problems of individual psychology and the closely related problems of age, sex and race difference. The conclusion is reached that " given representatives of one country or race may be better or worse than those of another country or race, but the variation seems to be the variation of individuals. "

Bousquet, G. H. *Essai sur l'évolution de la pensée économique.* Bibliothèque internationale d'économie politique. Paris, Marcel Girard, 1927. 314 pp. 45 frs.

Mr. Bousquet, a disciple of Vilfredo Pareto, examines the development of economic doctrines from the point of view of the psychology of their authors and the contribution they have made to the elaboration of a sound and purely objective science of the production and distribution of wealth. He throws into prominence the connection hitherto overlooked between the various doctrines. His principal aim is to raise political economy to the level of other sciences. He points out similarities in their respective developments. The book is largely based on an exten-

sive knowledge of the history of the different sciences, in particular, mechanics, physics, and mathematics. Mr. Bousquet applies to economics the critical methods of Duhem, Mach and Poincaré, who have strongly influenced his outlook. He foreshadows an eventual synthesis of differing points of view touching economic theory. He concludes with a chapter devoted to science in general.

Brouckère, Louis de. *La coopération. Ses origines, sa nature, ses grandes fonctions.* Cours donné à l'Ecole des Sciences Politiques et Sociales de l'Université libre de Bruxelles (Chaire universitaire de la coopération). Brussels, Les Propagateurs de la Coopération, 1926. 189 pp.

A course of lectures on co-operation given at the School of Political and Social Sciences, University of Brussels.

Bureau d'études de la Banque Marmorosch, Blank et Cie. S.A., Bucarest. *Les forces économiques de la Roumanie en 1926.* Bucarest, Cultura nationala. 144 pp.

The aim of this work is to supply foreigners with information concerning the economic life of Rumania. Its authors give in this new edition up to date statistics and abundant particulars on the wealth of the country, agriculture, mineral resources, motive power, industry, foreign trade, transport, finance, official commercial organisations and exchange.

Bureau of Social Research for Tyneside. *Tyneside Papers.* Newcastle-upon-Tyne. 2d.

These papers, published in series as separate pamphlets, are intended to give information about social and industrial conditions on Tyneside. The Bureau has so far issued five such papers dealing with population and house room on Tyneside, overcrowding in Northumberland and Durham, occupation and industries on Tyneside and regional town planning.

Butler, Nicholas Murray. *The International Mind. An argument for the judicial settlement of international disputes.* New York, Charles Scribner's Sons, 1926. x + 121 pp.

A collection of addresses delivered by the President of Columbia University from 1907 to 1912.

Charpentier, Alfred. *L'atelier syndical fermé en regard des principes sociaux catholiques.* L'Ecole sociale populaire, No. 151. Montreal, 1926. 36 pp. 15 sous.

After indicating the origin of the " closed shop " system the author examines the grounds for its institution and the different methods adopted to maintain it. The subject is considered from the Roman Catholic standpoint.

Cohn, Dr. Alfred. *Die Ethik als Problem der sozialen Zahnheilkunde.* Leipzig, J. A. Barth, 1926. IV + 76 pp.

A study of the ethical problems involved in the practice of dentistry.

Compagnie des Forges de Châtillon, Commentry et Neuves-Maisons. *Formation de la main d'œuvre. L'apprentissage dans les mines Saint-Jacques à Montluçon. Rapport présenté à la Semaine du Travail manuel, Paris, 26-30 octobre 1925.* Montluçon, René Micheau. 11 pp.

The first attempt at an apprenticeship system in the Saint Jacques works dates back to 1905. It applied more particularly to the training of fitters, turners and smiths. It has been modified and its scope extended since 1917. Apprentices trained now include : modellers, moulders, smiths, fitters, turners, braziers, carpenters, wheelwrights, and electricians. The aim is not only to form efficient workmen, but to give them a good physical, intellectual and moral training. Notwithstanding the varied nature of the occupations, a uniform plan has been adopted with modifications introduced in matters of detail only touching specialisation. The training course includes a period of initiation preceding actual apprenticeship and a period of apprenticeship. The pamphlet describes how this vocational instruction is organised.

Coombs, Whitney. *The Wages of Unskilled Labor in Manufacturing Industries in the United States, 1890-1924.* Studies in History, Economics, and Public Law,

No. 283, edited by the Faculty of Political Science of Columbia University. New York, Columbia University Press, 1926. 162 pp. $2.25.

The main object of the author is to secure a reliable quantitative means of measuring the variations in the wages of unskilled labour in manufacturing industries in the United States during the period 1890-1924. The changes in the wages of unskilled labour are first examined by industries. The data available are then combined to show the general movement. Comparison is made of index numbers showing the general movement of wages with index numbers showing changes in the cost of living. The results show that the real wage index number of unskilled labour in manufacturing industries in the United States was 120 in 1924 as compared with 100 in 1913 and 106 in 1890.

Co-operative Union. *The Fifty-Eighth Annual Co-operative Congress 1926 held in Belfast 24-26 May 1926.* Edited by A. WHITEHEAD (General Secretary). Manchester, 1926. XII + 753 pp.

This volume contains the Report of the Central Board of the Co-operative Union for the Congress Year 1925-1926, a full report of the proceedings of the 58th Annual Co-operative Congress, held at Belfast in May 1926, and complete Co-operative Statistics for the year 1925, compiled in the Statistical Department of the Co-operative Union.

These are the first statistical data compiled since the new form of Annual Return was adopted by the Registrar, and they contain much detailed information not published in previous years.

The Report submitted to the Congress by the Central Board is noteworthy because it includes the first report of work undertaken by the new Joint Agricultural Committee of the Co-operative Union, which was established by a resolution of the Congress held at Southport in 1925. It also includes a final reference to the work of the old Joint Committee of Trade-unionists and Co-operators, which ceased to exist shortly after the Southport Congress, and which has since been replaced by the new National Conciliation Board established jointly by the Co-operative Movement and trade unions having members employed in co-operative service. The report, in addition, includes the complete report of the Special Committee on Co-operative Farming, which contains information useful to all who are interested in this branch of co-operative enterprise.

Council of Christian Associations. *Christian Principles and the Problems of the Pacific.* New York, Association Press, 1926. 88 pp.

A discussion outline, prepared for groups of college students, of such problems as those of oriental population and migration, the industrialisation of the Orient, Philippine independence, extraterritoriality of foreigners and consequent unrest in China, and the Japanese desire for recognition of racial equality.

Croix-Rouge de Belgique. *La démonstration d'hygiène de Jumet.* Etudes. Première série, No. 5. Paris, Ligue des Sociétés de la Croix-Rouge, 1927. 120 pp., illustr.

Describes a demonstration of hygienic and preventive measures and the work accomplished by the Belgian Red Cross Society at Jumet.

Du Pasquier. *Völkerbund und Internationale Erziehung. Eine allgemeine Orientierung.* Im Auftrag der Regierungskommission des Saargebiets. 1927. 48 pp.

Contains a short account of the functions of the International Labour Organisation.

Duzmans, Karl. *Lettland förr och nu.* Stockholm, Ernst Wessmans Bokförlag, 1926. 350 pp., illustr., map.

Mr. Duzmans, the permanent Latvian Delegate to the League of Nations (formerly Chargé d'Affairs at Stockholm) gives in this book a very valuable account of the history of the Latvian nation and the origin of the new State, as well as of present-day cultural, political and economic conditions in Latvia. Of special interest is the detailed study of the great Agrarian Reform (1920-1924), the historical background of which is given in a chapter on the " History of Landownership, Nobility and Peasantry ", containing a fascinating exposition of the different

conceptions in these matters which were held by the various Swedish, Russian and German rulers of the Baltic provinces. Though most attention is naturally paid to agriculture, Mr. Duzmans' book also discusses the conditions and prospects of other branches of industry and trade.

Edminster, Lynn Ramsay. *The Cattle Industry and the Tariff.* Institute of Economics, Investigations in International Commercial Policies. New York, Macmillan, 1926. xv + 331 pp.

The Institute of Economics has set out to make a really scientific study of the effects of the United States tariffs on certain specified agricultural industries and of connected problems. The present volume on the cattle and beef industry follows upon studies on wool and sugar. The enquiry is extremely thorough and discusses foreign competition, production questions (including costs of production), demand, output, etc. The conclusion reached is that tariffs have had little effect in stimulating the industry, and impose, or will impose, an uncompensated burden on the national welfare. That there is an element of uncertainty in the conclusion arrived at on this controversial question is shown by the partial dissent of one member of the Council of the Institute. Incidentally the study proves the difficulty of comparing agricultural costs of production between two countries — in this instance, between the United States and Argentina.

Ellingwood, A. R., and Coombs, Whitney. *The Government and Labor.* Foreword by John R. Commons. Chicago and New York, A. W. Shaw, 1926. xv + 639 pp. $6.

This work is intended for use as a text book by teachers of the subject of labour legislation. It is a collection of illustrative material bearing upon the major problems which have grown out of the relations between the government and labour in the United States. Hitherto students of the subject have been compelled to rely largely upon secondary material, because of the bulk and relative inaccessibility of the sources. The purpose of the editors has been to make a compilation of original material, viz., the more important statutes, judicial decisions, administrative orders and reports, designed for the use of students and instructors who favour the extension of the case method in the teaching of social science.

Fédération des Sociétés Coopératives belges. *Convocation à l'Assemblée Générale du dimanche 20 juin 1926. Bilan. Rapports. Tableaux. Exercice 1925.* Antwerp. 35 pp.

Contains the invitation to and agenda of the annual general meeting of the Belgian Federation of Co-operative Societies, 20 June 1926, together with the report, balance sheet and tables showing purchases and sales for 1925.

Fédération nationale des coopératives de consommation. *Annuaire de la coopération (5e année) 1926-1927.* Paris, 1926. 630 pp.

The year book of the French National Federation of Distributive Co-operative Societies for 1926-1927 contains articles by leaders of the co-operative movement and a list of distributive co-operative societies with membership and turnover. A statistical summary follows. The third part contains texts of laws concerning distributive co-operative societies, and legal forms prescribed for use by these societies.

Fisher, Irving. *Prohibition at its Worst.* New York, Macmillan Company, 1926. 255 pp.

Food Research Institute, Stanford University, California. *A General Statement.* Stanford, 1926. 12 pp.

The present statement is designed to answer the questions of correspondents, and to introduce the Institute to those who may be interested in its work.

Frois, Marcel. *La santé et le travail des femmes pendant la guerre.* Histoire économique et sociale de la guerre mondiale (Série française). La guerre et le travail. Publications de la Dotation Carnegie pour la paix internationale. Paris, Les Presses universitaires de France ; New Haven, U.S.A., Yale University Press. xii + 205 pp.

In this volume, part of the French series devoted to the " Economic and Social History of the World War " published by the Carnegie Endowment for International Peace, Mr. Frois, member of the Superior Council of Public Health, shows under what conditions women were employed in factories in France during the war ; he points out the faulty organisation during the early stages and the detrimental effects on the health of the workers. The book is in seven chapters, dealing with the protection of women workers in war manufactures, factors affecting their health, safeguards against industrial accidents and against industrial poisoning, measures for the protection of mother and child in the factory, welfare, and results obtained. In the last chapter Mr. Frois emphasises the importance of the factory medical service and deals with morbidity and mortality among women workers. The appendix contains the text of a circular addressed by the Minister of Munitions to the director of establishments for war materials (*Directeur des établissements de l'artillerie et des poudres*), together with charts prepared by physicians attached to these establishments in compliance therewith. The object of these charts was to give an accurate idea of the morbidity among the workers, with a view to enquiry as to the cause of any abnormal increase. An index facilitates reference.

Gargas, Sigismund. *Het Immigratie-Probleem in Frankrijk.* Reprinted from *De Opbouw.* 20 pp.

The author describes the marked change in migratory movements in France in the course of the last few years and the attitude of the various parties in regard to it. He draws attention to the difference between the point of view of the American trade unions and that of the French unions whi h defend the principle of freedom of immigration and the rights of foreign workers whom they wish to attract.

Gaucher, C. and Mortier, R. *Code de l'Enseignement technique. Documents officiels relatifs à l'enseignement technique et plus spécialement aux écoles pratiques de commerce et d'industrie, aux écoles de métiers et aux écoles professionnelles de la Ville de Paris.* Paris, 31, rue de Bourgogne, 1926. VI + 252 pp. 15 frs.

New and revised edition of the French Code of laws relating to technical instruction first published in 1923. A list of commercial and industrial schools in France at 1 April 1926 is given in the appendix. An analytical table of contents facilitates reference.

General Federation of Trade Unions. *Management Committee's Report on Rheumatism, its Cost, Incidence, and Methods of Treatment in this and other Countries.* London, 1926. 16 pp.

Harris, John H. *Slavery or " Sacred Trust " ?* Preface by Professor Gilbert MURRAY. London, Williams and Norgate, 1926. 195 pp. 5s.

Since the publication of *The Dual Mandate in British Tropical Africa,* this is the most important work which has appeared on the governance of the backward peoples. In it the organising Secretary of the Anti-Slavery and Aborigines Protection Society contrasts the slavery system, almost universally practised and upheld 200 years ago, with the principle of trusteeship enshrined in Article 22 of the Covenant of the League of Nations. Even at the present day, some three million persons are still held in some kind of slavery, while many millions more are bound to unjustifiable forms of forced labour or of indentured labour analogous to slavery.

Mr. Harris believes that hope for the future lies in the mandatory system of the League of Nations, in the provisions of the Slavery Convention, and in the proposals for the adoption of International Labour Conventions covering certain conditions of native labour. " These instruments will form a Magna Charta for millions of backward people, conferred upon them by the League of Nations, not merely as their protection against exploitation, but as the formal declaration by the Sovereign States of over fifty nations, that Trusteeship is the real title to colonial expansion and development. "

The objective of any International Labour Conventions adopted, the author considers, should be, in the first place, to remove from coloured labour every taint of slavery and then to level up conditions so that labour forces can really be regarded as co-operators, sharing equitably in the results of prosperity. Forced labour

should be one of the first questions to be treated. The International Labour Conference should aim at the abolition of all forced labour except for emergency purposes, and should in the meantime regulate its application, limit its duration, insist on payment, on good sanitary conditions, on the exemption of women and children, the aged and the unfit, and in general take all necessary precautions. Indentured or contract labour is, in the author's opinion, another matter ripe for treatment by way of decisions of the International Labour Conference. He regards it as urgent to limit the maximum duration of any such contract to six months for underground work and twelve months for surface work; or to provide for revision at these periods upon the demand of either party to the contracts; he further contends that the practice of treating a breach of contract as a criminal offence if committed by the worker should at once be prohibited. Furthermore, Mr. Harris is of opinion that the League of Nations, which " by its constitution, knows no bar resting on race, or creed, or colour, " should lay down the fundamental principle that the labourer is entitled to rise in the industrial scale to any height for which he is fitted by his capacity and character, regardless of racial distinction. With these problems solved, he believes that it will be possible to deal with the protection of coloured workers on the same lines as has been done in the more highly developed countries; and expresses the hope that the information which the International Labour Office is collecting on the general conditions of native employment will eventually lead to national and international action.

The author describes as " an historical turning point in the treatment of backward races " the adoption of the Mandatory System, under which the sacred trust was decreed to be the real title to the control of the external territories surrendered by Germany and Turkey. He claims, however, that for generations the ideal of sacred trust has been gaining ground in the theory of British colonial statecraft; and that the real triumph at Versailles in 1919 was the decision to make the international acceptance of this ideal a definite obligation of the States Members of the League of Nations. His book, even apart from the illuminating facts with which it is packed, is an incontrovertible justification of this ideal.

Mr. Harris's book concludes with an appendix giving the texts of Article 22 of the Covenant and of the various mandates.

Hedberg, Anders. *Le Commerce de Gros Coopératif International.* Reprinted from the *Revue des Etudes Coopératives*, Nos. 17 and 19, October 1925 and April 1926. Paris, Les Presses Universitaires de France, 1926. 78 pp. 4 francs.

This work, published also in Swedish, in German and in English, was analysed in the January 1926 issue of the *International Labour Review*, Vol. XIII, No. 1, p. 146.

Hirano, Yoshitaro. *Horitsu niokeru Yaikyu Toso* (*The Class Struggle in Law*). Tokyo, 1925. 325 pp.

The author is a professor at the Imperial University of Tokyo and a thorough believer in Marxian socialism, and the book is an analytical and historical study of law from the point of view of the class struggle.

The author claims at the outset that when law is examined as an object of sociological or historical study, one finds that it originates in, and develops with, the class struggle; and that it can under no circumstances be separated from the facts of the class struggle and the principles which govern them. Whether one likes it or not, one cannot deny that law evolves within the class struggle; and this is proved by science. In order to arrive at a complete understanding of law, it is necessary to study the historical facts of the class struggle and to discover by empirical methods the evolutionary principles underlying them. This is the principal task of the sociological study of law.

It is from this point of view that the author has attempted a bold analysis of law, something quite new in the study of jurisprudence in Japan. In the first chapter he deals with the origin of law, the origin of personal " status " and the origin of the right of ownership, and explains the rôle of the class struggle in each case. He traces the origin of the personal status and how the latter gave birth to the consciousness of status. He then explains the part played in the class struggle by the idea of justice which has evolved from the consciousness of personal status.

In the second chapter the Roman law is analysed historically, again from the point of view of the class struggle ; and in the third chapter the latter is examined as it exists under the capitalistic legal system of modern society. Special consideration is given to the guiding principles of this system, quoted from Bentham, and citing historical incidents in the French Revolution. The trade union movement is then critically examined as a weapon employed in the class struggle.

Chapter 4 deals with the class struggle from the philosophical standpoint and in the three remaining chapters strikes and other present-day problems of labour disputes are examined. Ample reference is made to existing laws in various industrial states, especially those of Japan. The right to strike, the attitude of the Supreme Court toward sedition, the police regulations concerning strike action, and the provisions of the new German Constitution relating to strikes, etc., are examined from the point of view of a Marxian student of law.

The last chapter is devoted to the study of the law of arbitration as applied to labour disputes, with practical suggestions for the solution of the problem of labour disputes, special reference being made to Australian, English and American experiments in this sphere.

Horace Plunkett Foundation. *Year Book of Agricultural Co-operation in the British Empire. With a Census of Producers' Organisations.* London, Routledge and Sons, 1926. 254 pp.

This volume is the second of a series of Year Books, of which the Horace Plunkett Foundation hopes to be able to continue the issue as a running survey of agricultural co-operative enterprise in the British Empire. It describes the achievements and problems of co-operation in India, South Africa, New Zealand, Australia, Ireland, Scotland and Palestine. It contains a bibliography of agricultural co-operation, and gives in 125 pages a census of agricultural co-operative organisations in the British Empire, with such particulars as membership, value of sales, nature of produce or commodity, etc.

Hucho, Dr. Wolfgang. *Die Naturalentlohnung in der Deutschen Landwirtschaft.* Berlin, Parey, 1925. 80 pp.

This book, the title of which was noted in the February 1927 issue of the *International Labour Review*, discusses the present state of payment in kind in German agriculture. From the year 1849 up to the outbreak of the war the payment of wages in kind declined in importance. The period during the war and up to 1924, specially dealt with by the author, was one during which wages in kind again played an important rôle. According to the author it is only on the Island of Rugen that payment exclusively in kind is found ; in the whole of the northern and eastern part of Germany, and in Silesia since 1919, the workers receive more than 50 per cent. of their wages in kind. Wages are paid in cash in Baden and Württemberg.

Before the war, the employers did not try to arrest the decline of the system of paying wages in kind ; steadily rising prices made it an advantage for them to have more crops to dispose of for sale, while the workers eagerly agitated for the complete abolition of the system. During the war, however, both parties became interested in this form of wages, and to-day the employers want to maintain the system of wages in kind ; the workers' opinion is less definite. They recognise that industrial wage forms cannot be directly applied to agriculture and that partial wages in kind have some advantages.

The author points out the interest of the workers in the money valuation of wages paid in kind, a fact sometimes denied by the employers, and the author devotes a large part of his book to this very difficult question.

He finally concludes, after having examined the economic effects of wages in kind in agriculture, that the disadvantages outweigh the advantages, and, considered from the social standpoint, no extension of the payment in kind system is desirable. On the other hand, he emphasises the fact that the system itself is no obstacle to the modernising of labour conditions in agriculture. This is evident from the fact that the agricultural districts where most of the workers are organised in agricultural workers' organisations are precisely those districts in which wages in kind are the more generally accepted form of remuneration.

Humphreys, C. B. *The Southern New Hebrides. An ethnological record.* Cambridge University Press, 1926. xvi + 214 pp.

An account of the southern islands of the New Hebrides, chiefly of value to the ethnologist but also of interest to the general student of Pacific areas.

Industrial Relations Counselors. *Report on Employees Stock Ownership.* New York, 165 Broadway. 78 pp. Typescript.

Although this study contains an analysis of only 68 plans, and does not pretend to comprise a very large proportion of the employee stock subscription systems in effect in the United States, it is interesting in that it claims to furnish a " fairly accurate cross section " of the entire number of plans. Details are given concerning 68 firms in a large variety of industries.

The study is divided into three parts : the first gives a survey of the data collected, such as kinds of securities offered, terms of subscription and payment, and extent of participation ; the second gives opinions expressed by employers ; and the third, considerations governing the introduction of the plans, such as kind of stock to be offered, possible advantages and objections, etc.

It is also interesting to note, among other data, that only a few of the plans studied were found to contain features which could fairly be classed as profit-sharing, and that these features were not predominant.

Israel, Henry, and Landis, Benson Y. *Handbook of Rural Social Resources.* University of Chicago Press, 1926. viii + 204 pp.

This most useful little publication replaces a survey published five years ago and now out of print, and is itself to be replaced every few years by fresh revisions. It is designed as a reference work for a variety of persons, principally for rural social workers. Besides brief but very informative articles on the usual topics connected with rural social life, namely, rural art, education, recreation, organisations, and the work of the churches in rural areas, there are others on such more fundamental subjects as recent legislation affecting agriculture, co-operative marketing, credit and taxation, and prices and production, the whole introduced by a particularly able analysis of the present state of knowledge of the United States rural population and its movements. The second part of the book gives information on all the important agencies concerned in rural sociology studies or undertaking active work connected with rural problems, with an outline of the programme of each organisation.

Jerome, Harry. *Migration and Business Cycles.* Foreword by Wesley C. Mitchell. New York, National Bureau of Economic Research, 1926. 256 pp.

This study of an important problem which, as Professor Wesley Mitchell says in his foreword, is generally treated in a controversial spirit, should prove useful to all who are interested in emigration and to all who are interested in business cycles. It has been made by Dr. Jerome under the auspices of the National Bureau of Economic Research, to whom the question had been referred by the Committee on Scientific Problems of Human Migration of the National Research Council.

The investigators set themselves to find answers to the following questions :

1. To what extent do cyclical and seasonal fluctuations in migration correspond in time and degree with fluctuations in industrial activity, particularly as measured by employment or unemployment ?
2. What noteworthy variations in cyclical and seasonal fluctuations appear when migrants are classified by sex, prior occupation, race or country of origin ?
3. What is the relative influence of the " push " or the " pull " upon fluctuations in migration ; that is, are such fluctuations primarily determined by changes in the country of emigration or in the country of immigration ?
4. What is the economic significance of the ascertained tendencies ?

The general conclusion to which they come is that there is a close relation between the cyclical oscillations of employment and those of migration, and a moderately close resemblance in the respective seasonal fluctuations. With regard to cyclical fluctuations in employment, it would appear that migration is not a primary cause of such fluctuations, but while in some instances it is an ameliorative influence it is more frequently a contributive factor to the evils of unemployment.

A more detailed account of the conclusions is given in the *Monthly Record of Migration* for February 1927.

Jewish Colonisation Association. *Rapport de la Direction générale au Conseil d'administration pour l'année 1925, présenté à l'Assemblée générale du 9 octobre 1926.* Paris, Vébéziani, 1927. VIII + 306 pp.

An interesting report on the work of the Jewish Colonisation Association, which, with the object of assisting Jews coming from central European countries, has established agricultural colonies in Canada, Palestine, Brazil, and the Argentine Republic. Details are also given of colonisation work undertaken by the Association in Poland, Bessarabia and Russia. In the last-mentioned country, there are at the present time 7,811 Jewish agricultural undertakings.

The report also gives an account of measures taken by the Association since 1925 with the object of evacuating emigrants held up in various European ports, and Russian refugees detained in Rumania, Turkey and Poland.

Kasteleiner, G. *Die Arbeitsfürsorge für Erwerbsbeschränkte in Düsseldorf.* Düsseldorf, Städtische Druckerei, 1925. 32 pp.

The considerable increase, during post-war years, of social charges and the state expenditure entailed thereby, have led competent authorities to aim at productive utilisation of sums which hitherto have merely been distributed in the form of relief. This principle has been applied in various ways, particularly in Germany. Assistance to unemployed persons has been organised upon a system whereby the sums of money set aside for this purpose have been utilised for productive public works. The municipal authorities of Düsseldorf have in addition set up workshops where persons of reduced working capacity are employed upon coke-sorting, chopping firewood, etc. There are also shoemakers' workshops.

Similar experiments have been tried with great success in a number of other German towns, among which Hamburg may be specially mentioned.

Köhler, Fritz. *Brasilien Heute und Morgen.* Leipzig, F. A. Brockhaus, 1926. 272 pp.

This book, written by a young German who went to Brazil in 1923 on a scientific mission, contains much information of use to emigrants and others going to that country. An account is given, among other things, of the coffee plantations and of the agricultural settlements, particularly those of German origin.

Kyocho Kai. *1925 Nen Igirisu Tanko Sogi No Igi.* Tokyo, 1926. 58 pp.

During the British coal dispute the *Kyocho Kai* received a large number of enquiries from trade unions as well as from individuals interested in the dispute. In reply to these enquiries the present pamphlet (based upon information contained in periodicals received daily by the organisation) was prepared, the standpoint taken being that of the trade unionist rather than of the mere seeker after information upon current events.

The introduction points out that the dispute was characterised by the full support of national and international labour organisations which had not hitherto taken any active part in large national disputes.

—— *1925 Nen niokeru Kakkoku Rodokai no Josei* (*Labour Movements in various Countries in 1925*). Tokyo, 1926. 203 pp.

This is a handy summary of the development of national and international trade unionism, as well as labour legislation, during 1925, taken from newspapers, magazines, official organs, and reports published in various countries. It covers England, the United States, the British Dominions, and practically all of the important industrial countries of the European continent, more especially France and Germany. In the section entitled "International labour movement" the question of a united front, the attitude assumed by the Amsterdam International, and the meeting of the Second International, etc. are reviewed historically. In addition, the question of the eight-hour day is briefly reviewed.

Laporte, H. André. *Mouvements de salaires depuis 1914.* Paris, Société Anonyme du Recueil Sirey, 1926. 173 pp.

A review of the main tendencies observed in wage changes since 1914. Illustrations are drawn from France, Germany and Great Britain. The relation between changes in currency value, the cost of living and money wages is indicated. It appears, *inter alia*, from the data that since 1914 the wages of women have increased in a relatively greater proportion than those of men. A similar tendency has operated in the case of unskilled as compared with skilled workers, and of agricultural workers as compared with those in manufacturing industries. At certain periods since the outbreak of war the real wages of many categories of workers fell on account of the high level of prices. The family allowance system has, in certain countries, served as a means of preventing some of the harmful effects of this fall in real wages.

League of Nations Union. *The I.L.O. Record in 1926. An account of the work of the Organisation and the Office.* Publication No. 208. London, 1927. 58 pp. 6d.

A comprehensive little survey of the work of the International Labour Office. Special chapters are devoted to the Eighth and Ninth Sessions of the International Labour Conference ; there are also interesting sections dealing with the Sessions of the Governing Body and the participation of the Office in the work of various Committees. A description is given of the new building in which the staff is now housed ; and an appendix contains a list of ratifications received during the year.

Les institutions de formation professionnelle aux Etablissements Schneider. Paris, 1925. 24 pp.

In view of its special position in an agricultural district and because of the diversity of its industries (mechanical engineering and metallurgical industries), the Creusot factory, from the first, devoted great attention to technical training. Three categories of educational institutions were established : (1) special schools ; (2) preparatory training sections ; (3) apprenticeship sections. The pamphlet under consideration describes their organisation.

Malone, Col. C. L'Estrange. *New China.* Report of an Investigation by Col. C. L'Estrange Malone. Part II. *Labour Conditions and Labour Organisations.* 1926. London, Independent Labour Party Publication Department. 24 pp., 1 map, 6 photographs. 6d.

Colonel Malone, who in the course of 1925-1926 conducted a personal enquiry into conditions in China, has made public the result of his investigations. His report has been published in two parts, the first being devoted to the political situation.

In Part II he gives the detailed information he has collected on conditions of labour for both peasantry and factory workers. There are 1500 modern factories in China with a possible number of 2-4 million persons employed, a little over 200,000 in the cotton mills and roughly 300,000 in silk filatures. Shanghai has 153,918 workers employed in factories. In the cotton mills the average daily wage is generally 30 Chinese cents (1 Chinese dollar equals about 2s.). The hours of labour are in the majority of cases 12 in both day and night shifts. Employment of women and young children, no fencing of machinery and no compensation for accidents were the common rule in the factories Colonel Malone visited. Similar, though less detailed information is given on silk filatures, printing, tobacco factories, flour mills, railway workers, etc. A more complete description is given of the mode of living of the coolies and of the ricksha coolies in particular.

In a further part, Colonel Malone compares Chinese and foreign factories, also the conditions of labour in modern and in the old handicrafts industry, the former giving better hygienic conditions, but involving greater strain on the worker.

A thorough study is made of the labour organisations in China. Trade unions in China may be said to fall within two groups : " red " or of Russian origin or inspiration, and what he calls for purposes of distinction " yellow " or " not so red " unions. The total membership is said to be 1,168,000, of which 300,000 in Canton Province, over 200,000 in Hong Kong, and roughly 150,000 in Shanghai. The red unions are closely allied to the All-China Labour Federation, which has its headquarters in Canton, no national organisation existing for the yellow unions. A separate study is made of the peasants' unions, of women's organisations and of the co-operative movement.

After having given information on the labour legislation adopted by the Chinese authorities of both the north and south of China, and on the attempts at child labour regulation in the Foreign Settlement of Shanghai, Colonel Malone draws a certain number of conclusions. He calls in particular for the establishment of a Labour Research Department of the Far East, for a consortium of labour advisers of Western countries to assist Chinese workers to organise themselves, and lastly for a School of Economics to train labour and industrial leaders.

Mandelstam, André N. *La Société des Nations et les Puissances devant le problème arménien.* Special number of the *Revue générale de Droit international public.* Paris, A. Pedone, 1926. VIII + 355 pp.

The author examines the general trend of the Great Powers' intervention in the Armenian question prior to 1914 and the points submitted in connection with the problem to the Peace Conference, the Supreme Council and the League of Nations. An important chapter is devoted to the work of the Lausanne Conference. The author expresses confidence in the prestige and influence of the League of Nations which, he says, " has always raised its voice in defence of a sacrificed nation. "

Milnes, Nora. *The Economics of Wages and Labour.* London, P. S. King, 1926. 197 pp.

Various theories regarding wages, including the wages fund theory, the productivity of labour theory and the marginal theory are discussed, references being made to the views of leading economists in different countries. Also, wealth, value and interest on capital are examined, together with the relationship between the various agents of production — land, labour, and capital.

A separate chapter discusses various practical questions concerning wages, including the reaction of wages in backward countries on those in advanced countries. The alternative remedies of protection of home producers against goods produced under " sweated " conditions abroad and international action for the prevention of sweating are discussed. The problem of family endowment is also examined. Other chapters deal with the earnings of women in relation to those of men and with the effect of the development of trade unionism on real wages.

Nathan, Manfred. *South Africa from Within.* London, John Murray, 1926. 324 pp., map.

National Conference of Social Work. *Proceedings of the National Conference of Social Work at the Fifty-third Annual Session held in Cleveland, Ohio, 26 May-2 June 1926.* Chicago, University of Chicago Press, 1926. VI + 716 pp.

The subjects dealt with at the fifty-third session of the Conference are arranged under the following twelve headings : (1) children, (2) delinquents and correction, (3) health, (4) the family, (5) industrial and economic problems (the living wage and family allowance systems, substitution of negro labour for European immigrant labour, social problems of the Mexican population in the United States, trade unionism and social work, etc.), (6) neighbourhood and community life (housing conditions, " zoning, " etc.), (7) mental hygiene, (8) organisation of social forces, (9) public officials and administration, (10) the immigrant, (11) professional standards and education, and (12) educational publicity (need and organisation of educational publicity in social work, etc.).

National Industrial Conference Board. *Clerical Salaries in the United States 1926.* New York, 1926. IX + 59 pp. $1.50.

Sets forth the results of the first survey of salaries received in the chief types of office occupation in the United States. Data are given for a number of typical occupations. Comparison is made of the relative position of men and women in office employment and emphasis is laid on the difficulty of giving average salaries for office work on account of the wide range of salaries. It is considered, however, that a comparison between the general level of salaries for ordinary clerical work and the average earnings of factory employees is possible. Among the various types of office work, six of the occupations considered correspond reasonably closely with one another, both in the character of the work and in the amount of salary customarily paid. These occupations include general clerks, ledger clerks,

payroll clerks, cost clerks, order clerks and shipping clerks. They are regarded as characteristic of office employment comprising routine work performed under supervision. The data compiled show that the approximate average salary of these workers is slightly less than the average earnings of manual workers in a considerable number of important industries in the United States. In making this comparison, however, a number of advantages in office work, including shorter hours, greater regularity of employment, the apparently greater opportunities of advancement, and social status, are pointed out.

—— *The Cost of Living in New York City, 1926.* New York, 1926. 129 pp. $2.00.

The results are given of investigations undertaken to ascertain the minimum cost of maintaining a fair American standard of living in New York City. Separate chapters deal with food, fuel and light, housing, clothing and sundries. The total cost per week and per annum of the standard considered necessary for the families of industrial workers with one, two and three children respectively is given. Budgets are also given for unmarried industrial workers, male and female, and for office workers with and without families.

Ohara Institute of Social Research. *Nihon Rodo Nenhan — Taisho 15 nen (The Labour Year Book of Japan — 1926).* Osaka, 1926. 500 pp.

This Year Book contains very complete information on the conditions of the working classes ; the labour policies of employers and authorities, public and private ; and socialistic and anti-socialistic movements in Japan. It also gives useful and succinct information on the international labour problem ; and the texts of Acts, ordinances and regulations issued during the year 1925 together with a full bibliography on labour questions in Japan are annexed.

Ohta, Riichi. *Nöson Shakai Mondai no Suko.* Tokyo, 1925. 289 pp.

Although remarkable progress has recently been made in her industrial organisation, Japan is still pre-eminently an agricultural country, 9,020,000 individuals — more than 56 per cent. of her total working population — being engaged in agriculture. The national life is still largely dependent upon agriculture ; and it is for this reason that the spread of social problems in country districts is generally looked upon with profound anxiety by the Japanese government and statesmen as well as by leading thinkers and scholars.

The author of the book has analysed this many-sided question with a sympathetic understanding of the aspirations of peasants, tenant-farmers and labourers. He traces the development of tenants' and landowners' unions and the spread of agricultural tenancy disputes, and examines closely the social and economic nature of these disputes and of what is implied by them, the characteristic methods employed by the tenants' and landowners' unions in such disputes and the effect of conciliatory measures.

The attitude of the author is optimistic. In his analysis of rural social problems he has tried to show that disputes will eventually give rise to complete re-organisation of rural life and of the agricultural system. The book is at all events a valuable contribution to available information on Japan as an agricultural country, even if the conclusions reached may not be suitable for immediate adoption as a practical solution of the existing difficulty.

Post, Louis F. *What is the single tax ?* New York, Vanguard Press, 1926. XIII + 140 pp.

An interesting book, the author of which warmly advocates the abolition of the multiplicity of taxes at present levied upon the individual, and the substitution of a single tax levied upon the occupation of land. It is claimed that a reform on these lines will leave to each individual, untaxed, all that he earns. It is considered that " to monopolise land is to own slaves " ; and it is proposed to transfer taxes gradually from individual earnings to those values of land that are unearned by land owners, and thus to increase wealth production and promote fair distributions of wealth among all who contribute to its production.

Prewett, F.J. *The Marketing of Farm Produce.* Part I. *Live Stock.* Agricultural Economics Research Institute, University of Oxford. Oxford, Clarendon Press, 1926. VIII + 103 pp., illustr.

The author of this book gives expression to the opinion of most farmers as to the need for reform in the present system of marketing live stock. He presents a considered study of existing methods of sale and distribution in England, compares them with those of other countries, and concludes that the best way of overcoming the defects and extravagance of the present system is for the producer to build up some national co-operative machinery for food distribution in conjunction with the consumer.

Rager, Fritz. *Die Gehilfenvertreter in den Fortbildungsschulen.* Foreword by A. Taübler. Vienna, Verein Genossenschaftlicher Gehilfenvertreter Oesterreichs, 1926. 93 pp.

An excellent little manual designed for workers' representatives on educational committees in the Austrian vocational continuation schools (*Fortbildungsschulen*). The author analyses the legal provisions affecting these schools, describes the rôle of the Governing Body (*Fortbildungsschulrat*) and the working of the Educational Committee with circumscribed powers known as the *Schulausschuss*. He defines the part played by the workers' representatives and indicates their programme.

A list of the vocational and continuation schools in Austria and the rules of the different schools, together with some examples of the curricula, are given in the appendix.

Reichsverband der Deutschen land- und forstwirtschaftlichen Arbeitgebervereinigungen. *Fragen ländlicher Sozialpolitik, Arbeitsmarktpolitik, Lohn- und Tarifpolitik. Geschäftsbericht Mai 1924 bis Oktober 1925.* Berlin, 1926. 110 pp.

In addition to reporting on the work done by the Union of German Associations of Employers in Agriculture and Forestry during the period May 1924 to October 1925, this book collates various papers read, mainly on social questions and social legislation in Germany, on matters of interest to employers in agriculture. These questions fall into three groups — social insurance, employment, and wages questions.

Rommenhoeller, C. G. *La Grande Roumanie. Sa structure économique, sociale, financière, politique et particulièrement ses richesses.* The Hague, Martinus Nijhoff, 1926. 634 pp.

The author, Consul-General of Rumania in the Netherlands, has based this study on the publications issued by government departments, statistical and various administrative offices, and on first hand information. The work is a valuable book for business men and traders, giving, as it does, a general idea of the wealth of Rumania and of the effort required to utilise her resources. It includes some twenty chapters which deal with the country and its inhabitants, the history of Rumania, the constitution and administration of the country since the war, population, agriculture, forestry, agrarian reform, associations (credit and farming associations, factory and consumers' organisations), industry and industrial organisation (a chapter of 230 pages), new economic laws and laws for the encouragement of industry, economic policy in Rumania, railways and shipping, foreign trade, the commercial policy of Rumania from 1875 to 1925, financial questions, in particular customs tariffs, currency, banking, finance and the Rumanian budget.

Scott, J. W. Robertson. *The Dying Peasant and the Future of his Sons.* London, Williams and Norgate, 1926. xiii + 282 pp.

The title of this book is a singularly misleading indication of the author's general outlook, which is vigorous and optimistic. As he himself says, he has tried to be " readable, truthful, and meaty ", and his title is designed for no other purpose than to arrest attention. The book is a mixture of straightforward information about wages and hours and of description and personal judgments ; the latter are founded on much first-hand observation and talk with those in the very heart of the agricultural workers' movement in England and Scotland. Written by one who is outside the daily tedium of having to organise that movement inch by inch over contested ground, but who, at the same time, is thoroughly sympathetic to the claims of the workers, the book is both interesting and valuable.

The information on wages, hours, and conditions is drawn from the usual accessible official and other sources. *The Dying Peasant* makes no pretence to be a

systematic survey, or to place before the public facts hitherto unknown. The author, however, succeeds in giving vitality to the facts he quotes. Wages, he points out, are at the moment more important than hours, they are, in fact, the outstandingly important thing. Wages depend on what agriculture can afford, and what agriculture can afford depends on how farming is carried on, well, badly, or merely indifferently. In the author's opinion, it would appear, there is far too much indifferent farming in some of the districts he knows. On the whole, however, his book is written round social rather than round economic problems, and the farmer who does not want to pay good wages, rather than the farmer who cannot pay, is his theme. The author has a case for the worker, and he makes it with point and vigour.

Housing, education, cottage budgets, social life in general, and the moral and psychological contest going on between farmers and men, are subjects touched upon in the rest of the book. A feature to be noted is the businesslike and thoroughly well informed account given of the agricultural workers' organisations in England and Scotland. The book covers these two countries and sometimes emphasises the contrast between their agriculture very cleverly.

Sombart, Werner. *Der moderne Kapitalismus.* Vol. III, Part 1: *Das Wirtschaftsleben im Zeitalter des Hochkapitalismus.* Munich and Leipzig, Duncker und Humblot, 1927. XXII + 514 pp.

This part of Mr. Sombart's voluminous work on modern capitalism deals with the elements and structure of the present industrial system. The author's survey of industrial development comprises a period of 150 years terminating with 1914, when, he assumes, capitalism reached its climax. The subjects dealt with are: The leaders of industry; the nature of the modern development of technics; the theory of capital; the various forms of capital; theories of population; the supply of labour; the adaptation of the population to the requirements of capitalism; the markets for products. The various subjects are treated from a theoretical as well as an historical point of view. The volume is remarkable not only for the accumulation of facts but still more for the new ideas expressed, which deserve the attention of statesmen as well as of employers and workers.

We regret that there is no index.

Speer, R. E., Inman, S. G. and Sanders, F. K. *Christian Work in South America. Official Report of the Congress on Christian Work in South America, at Montevideo, Uruguay, April 1925.* New York, Chicago, London, and Edinburgh, Fleming H. Revell, 1925. 2 vols. 474 pp.

The volume contains an interesting report on the condition of the Indians in various parts of South America. Peonage and other forms of slavery, the carrying off of women, and forced labour are alleged to exist in certain areas. Other reports deal with social and educational problems. The report on social movements contains a section on the Organised Labour Movement in South America, with a number of unfortunate errors of fact in regard to the ratification of the Conventions of the International Labour Conference.

Stanoyevich, Milivoy S. *Tolstoy's Theory of Social Reform.* New York, 1926. 57 pp.

A reprint of several essays originally published in the *American Law Review*, Vol. L, and the *American Journal of Sociology*, Vol. XXXI. The author, a member of the Academy of Political Science of New York, does not discuss Tolstoy as a man of letters nor does he attempt a biography of the great reformer; his aim is to give a clear general idea of his teaching and its significance to the great economic and political movements. Tolstoy's doctrine of law, theory of money and interpretation of property are compared with those of other social reformers. A summary of his social work given in the last chapter is followed by a bibliography of works utilised for this study.

Stephenson, George M. *A History of American Immigration, 1820 to 1924.* Boston, New York, London, Ginn and Company, 1926. VI + 316 pp.

This is a short history of immigration into the United States, by the Assistant Professor of History in the University of Minnesota. The author deals with his

subject as a factor in American political development. He therefore not only traces the evolution of immigration policy in the Unites States from the earlier regulations which encouraged immigration to the restrictive measures of recent years, but also devotes chapters to the immigrant in politics, the actions of immigrants and the attitude towards them during and after the war, and the naturalisation policy. The Chinese and Japanese immigration questions are dealt with in separate chapters. Rarely does the author desert the strict historical method to express opinions as to the future ; when he does so it is to suggest that the Act of 1924 may hinder rather than promote assimilation of immigrants, which was one of its objects, and he points out the unsatisfactory features of the present situation regarding Asiatic immigration.

An introductory section is devoted to a brief historical survey of immigration from the point of view of each of the principal nationalities or racial groups concerned in the movement to the United States. The book concludes with a bibliography.

Sutcliffe, James T. *The National Dividend. An Enquiry into the Amount of the National Dividend of Australia and Manner of its Distribution.* Preface by A. L. Bowley. Economic Series, No. 1. Melbourne University Press, 1926. x + 70 pp. 3s. 6d.

Estimates are made of the total national income or dividend of Australia in the years 1910-1911 to 1924-1925. Two methods giving similar results are adopted. By the first method the values of goods produced and of services rendered are taken as basis, allowance being made for importation and exportation, renewals and repairs of capital goods, etc. By the alternative method the total income of income tax payers is estimated and to this is added the income of wage earners not liable to income tax.

The distribution of the national dividend is examined. The average proportion received by wage and salary earners during the 14 years investigated is found to be 58.4 per cent. of the total dividend. The proportion was lower during the war years than during the years immediately preceding and succeeding the war. Information is also given as to the share of the national dividend received by different income groups. In addition to data showing distribution to persons, statistics are given showing how the national income is spent. The amounts spent on food, clothing, housing, ordinary miscellaneous expenditure, luxury and semi-luxury expenditure, together with the amount paid in direct taxation and the amount available for saving are indicated.

Taschenbücher des Auswanderers. Edited by Dr. P. Rohrbach und H. Zache.
(1) *Vereinigte Staaten von Nordamerika.* By Paul Rohrbach. 119 pp.
(2) *Brasilien.* By Paul Rohrbach. 112 pp.
(3) *Paraguay und Uruguay.* By Dr. Oskar Kende. 103 pp.
(4) *Deutsch-Südwestafrika.* By Bernhard Voigt. 93 pp.
(5) *Deutsch-Ost-Afrika* (*Tanganjika Territorium*). By Hans Zache. 127 pp.
Berlin, Safari Verlag, 1926.

Each of the handbooks for emigrants in this series (and there are others in preparation on Argentina and South Africa) contains a brief account of the geographical and historical facts relating to the country dealt with, the economic situation, political constitution, some particulars of the life and customs of the inhabitants, and information of particular value to intending emigrants, such as possibilities of employment, colonisation facilities, etc. The handbooks appear very well adapted to their purpose. They all have the same introduction, written by Mr. Hans Zache, one of the editors, and from which it would appear that the object of the series is to encourage German emigrants to retain and spread their German ideas rather than allow themselves to be submerged in the populations among which they live, as is the case at present.

Thorsteinsson, Thorstein. *Iceland.* A Handbook published on the fortieth anniversary of the Landsbanki Islands (National Bank of Iceland). Reykjavik, Prentsmidjan Gutenberg, 1926. 184 pp.

Except for a commercial calender published for the last few years, no general book of reference for Iceland has hitherto existed. The above handbook, published in English by the National Bank, accordingly fills a long-felt want. Its eighteen

sections, contributed by the foremost experts of the country, provide a complete and concise survey of Icelandic conditions. In addition to usual information on the constitution, the Government, the Legislature (Althing), administration, justice and public finance, the book contains chapters on geographical and demographical conditions, education, literature, etc. and a brief historical sketch. The main stress, however, is laid on the description of economic and social conditions. The book concludes with a classified list of books on Iceland in foreign languages.

Ullmann, K., Oppenheim, M. and Rille, J. H. *Die Schädigungen der Haut durch Beruf und gewerbliche Arbeit.* Vols. II and III. Leipzig, L. Voss, 1926. 567 and 308 pp.

The first volume of this work, published in 1915, was devoted to the general aspect of the subject treated ; the second and third, now under consideration, deal with specific diseases of the skin due to various physical, chemical and biological causes. The articles they contain are well documented. The third volume examines, in addition, venereal diseases among industrial workers, tumours, affections of the nails and eyes, and the occupational diseases of sick attendants and sanitary staff. Special chapters are devoted to prophylactic measures and the treatment of occupational diseases of the skin and to legislative provisions for the protection of workers against occupational risks.

Union popular catolica Argentina. *Almanaque social 1927.* Buenos Aires. 273 pp.

Contains information concerning the activities of the Argentine People's Catholic Union.

Verwaltungsausschuss des öffentlichen Arbeitsnachweises Düsseldorf Stadt und Land. (a) *Erwerbslose Grosstadtjugend.* Düsseldorf, 1925. 96 pp. (b) *Kampf gegen die Arbeitslosigkeit der Jugend.* Düsseldorf, 1926. 39 pp.

In these two pamphlets, the public employment office at Dusseldorf details the measures which have been taken by it to remedy the economic and social consequences of unemployment among young persons, and the results of courses of practical instruction in commercial subjects, dressmaking, gymnastics and puericulture, which have been set up for young unemployed persons.

Voionmaa, Tapio. *Kansainvälinen sosialipolitiikka : Kansainvälisen työjärjestön synty, toiminta ja saavutukset.* Helsingfors, Kustannusosakeyhtio Kansanvalta, 1926. 207 pp. 34 Finnish marks.

The principal subject of this book is the origin, work, and results of the International Labour Organisation, but its scope is somewhat wider, as it aims at giving a comprehensive survey of " International Social Policy " in general. After an introduction which deals with the relation between the ideas of " social justice " and " international justice ", the author explains, in the opening chapters, the reasons assigned in favour of international co-operation in the domain of social policy and labour legislation, and traces the historical development of the corresponding movement from the Holy Alliance to the League of Nations. The two following chapters are devoted to the general problems of the Labour Organisation of the League, its legal character, its competence, its constitution, and working methods. Then follow two chapters on the work accomplished by the Organisation. International labour legislation prepared by the International Labour Conference is analysed in detail, according to the object and actual contents of the draft Conventions and Recommendations, and is compared with standards of national legislation, particularly in Finland. On the other hand, the research and information work of the International Labour Office and its commissions is explained, special emphasis being laid on the international and constructive character of this work. These two chapters, based on a thorough study of the documents issued by the Labour Office itself, appear to represent the principal contribution made by the author. In a concluding chapter the author deals with the after-war development of the non-official movement in favour of international social policy, the landmarks of which are the Congress of Prague in 1924 and the constitution of the International Association for Social Progress in 1925. The book is provided with three appendices, containing the Text of Part XIII of the Peace Treaty in Finnish, a list of the publications of the International Labour Office, and a bibliography.

Zimmern, Alfred. *The Third British Empire.* A course of lectures delivered at Columbia University, New York. London, Humphrey Milford, Oxford University Press, 1926. 148 pp.

" A third British Empire has come into existence, new in its form, new in the conditions which it has to face within and without its borders, new even in its name. " The author discusses the constitutional developments which have led from the pre-war British Empire to the present British Commonwealth, with the characteristically British constitutional devices which have been created to meet changed circumstances. The relations of the Commonwealth to the League of Nations, the position of the non-white peoples, economic co-operation, and the question of nationality within the Empire are successively discussed in penetrating and illuminating fashion.

Zwiazek Robotnikow Przemyslu Metalowego w Polsce. *Sprawozdanie Zwiazku Robotnikow Przemyslu Metalowego w Polsce na 11-gi Zjazd, oraz Z Obrad Zjazdu. Odbytego w dn. 12 i 13 Grudnia 1926 Roku w Warszawie.* Warsaw, 1926. 48 pp.

Report of the Polish Federation of Workers in the Metal Industry for the period 1921-1925, together with the report of the Congress held at Warsaw, 12-13 December 1926.

OTHER PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED BY THE OFFICE

Adler, Dr. Max. *Helden der sozialen Revolution.* Berlin, E. Laub'sche Verlagsbuchhandlung, 1926. 53 pp.

—— *Politische oder Soziale Demokratie.* Ein Beitrag zur sozialistischen Erziehung. Berlin, E. Laub'sche Verlagsbuchhandlung, 1926. 165 pp.

Brown, A. Samler. *Madeira, Canary Islands and Azores.* A Practical and Complete Guide for the use of Tourists and Invalids. London, Simpkin, Marshall, Hamilton, Kent, 1927. 7s. 6d.

Cadbury, Edward. *Experiments in Industrial Organisation.* Preface by W. G. Ashley. London, New York, Bombay, Calcutta, Longmans, Green, 1912. xxi + 296 pp.

Gardiner, A. G. *Life of George Cadbury.* With illustrations by Olive Gardiner. London, New York, Toronto, Melbourne, Cassell. xi + 308 pp.

Heredia, José G. *Bibliografia de Sinaloa.* Mexico, Monografias Bibliograficas Mexicanas, 1926. viii + 185 pp.

Molinari, Dr. Ettore. *Chimie générale et industrielle.* (Translated from the Italian.) Paris, Dunod.

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Trade Organisation in Italy under the Act and Regulations on Collective Relations in connection with Employment

by

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A recent number of this Review *contained an account of the principles of the new Italian legislation on collective relations in connection with employment*[1], *from the pen of Professor G. Arias, the member of the "Committee of Eighteen" who was entrusted with the preparation of the Report of that Committee. The application of this legislation, which organised the system of trade organisations and corporations in Italy on quite new bases, necessarily involved a large number of important problems, whose solution was entrusted to the Ministry of Corporations, created by Royal Decree dated 2 July 1926. The following article, specially written for the* Review *by H.E. Giuseppe Bottai, Under-Secretary of State in the Ministry of Corporations, describes the work done by that Ministry since its creation, how and in what sense it has answered or approached the questions calling for solution, and the present state of Italian trade organisation as a consequence of the new legislation on collective relations in connection with employment.*

TRADE ORGANISATION OF EMPLOYERS, WORKERS, AND ARTISTS AND PERSONS ENGAGED IN A PROFESSION

AMONG the fundamental problems to be dealt with in consequence of the promulgation of the Act of 3 April 1926 on collective relations in connection with employment, completed by the Regulations of 1 July 1926, the first in order of time was that of creating or adopting within the legislative system trade organisations of the various kinds of activity connected with production and with labour.

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[1] *International Labour Review*, Vol. XIV, No 3, Sept. 1926, pp. 345-356 : "Trade Union Reform in Italy", by Gino ARIAS.

The word " creating " is not used at random, since, apart from large-scale industry and a few other classes of employers, trade associations of employers were practically unknown. Even in the trade union organisation of the workers there were many lacunæ, since rural workers, a category of very great importance in Italy, were almost completely unorganised except in certain specific regions.

Moreover, the diversity of existing organisations, almost all of which were of some definite political colour and followed in the wake of some Party, have had to be regularised and brought into conformity with the system set up by the Act. The latter, as is known, neither prohibits nor opposes freedom of association, but confers the exclusive right of legal representation, and of concluding collective agreements which shall be binding upon all, upon legally recognised associations which include employers only or workers only.

It will be recalled that section 4 of the Regulations of 1 July 1926 lays down that separate National Confederations may be recognised for employers and for employed in each of the following groups: industry, agriculture, commerce, maritime and aerial transport, land transport and inland navigation, and banking. Recognition may also be accorded to a National Confederation of artists and persons engaged in a profession. Finally, provision is made for the constitution of two large General Confederations, one consisting of employers, the other of employed persons, artists, and persons engaged in a profession.

The manner in which the system so planned has worked out in practice will now be examined.

Trade Organisation of Employers

The six National Confederations referred to above have all been set up, but have not yet been grouped into one General Confederation.

The manufacturers, who already possessed a solid and powerful central organisation, have transformed it, in accordance with the provisions of the Act, into the Fascist Confederation of Industries. This Confederation unites the industrial unions, usually provincial, which include manufacturers of all categories; between these unions and the Confederation there exist, as higher-grade associations, 38 national federations, each including all the manufacturers over the whole territory of the kingdom in a specific branch

of industry (e.g. cotton, wool, metals, etc.). Each of these organisations has its own particular constitution in conformity with the special needs of the branch of industry represented by it.

The trade organisation of employers in agriculture is simpler. In each province they are grouped in three associations, namely : (*a*) agriculturists not engaged in direct cultivation, (*b*) agriculturists engaged in direct cultivation, and (*c*) owners of land let out on lease. Together these form the provincial federations of agriculturists, which in turn make up the Confederation.

The Confederation of Persons engaged in Commerce is made up of distinct provincial federations. Within each of the latter, sections may be formed which, when grouped for the whole country, constitute national federations for separate branches, and are a class of association intermediate between a federation and a confederation.

Persons engaged in land transport and inland navigation are grouped in seven regional associations ; each of these again is subdivided into sections which, nationally united, form federations. The Confederation is as usual at the summit of this structure.

Shipowners form five inter-regional federations, each of which ncludes associations for specific classes. These, together with the National Federation of Aerial Undertakings, form the National Confederation of Maritime and Aerial Transport Undertakings.

Finally, employers engaged in banking form eight national associations for the different branches of their business (e.g. ordinary credit institutions, people's banks, private banks, etc.), which in turn are associated in federations, and finally in the Fascist Banking Confederation.

As has been seen, each of the main categories under which the Act on Associations classifies productive activities has organised its trade associations on lines that vary in each case according to the intrinsic diversity between the various forms of activity. But all the systems of organisation are in agreement with the provisions of the Act and the Regulations.

The Italian system, as is known, also provides for the formation of handicrafts associations — i.e. associations of persons carrying on on their own account a small industry in which they work themselves. These, like other associations for similar categories (small tradesmen, middlemen, commission agents, etc.), are required to become members of the higher-grade association of employers whose productive activity is of a similar kind.

In application of this principle, the Federation of Italian Handicrafts Associations (attached to the Confederation of Industry) has been set up; the members of this Federation are classified in separate associations of arts and crafts, which are in turn grouped in two main branches — one for artistic crafts and the other for ordinary crafts.

Trade organisation of handicraftsmen on these lines is of special importance, since it tends to enhance the value of much individual energy which would otherwise be stifled. It also contributes to the revival of numerous small industries characteristic of certain cities, districts, or regions, so linking up modern trade organisation with the glorious medieval arts and restoring to use, amidst our noisy mechanical civilisation, ancient methods and valuable artistic processes which would otherwise be irremediably lost.

The Federation of Handicrafts Associations, aided in its task of raising and reviving applied art by the Small Industries Association — a semi-official institution with important functions of providing instruction and granting credit — offers an excellent example of the moral and cultural work, combined with provision for relief and technical instruction, undertaken by the Italian trade organisations, over and above pure and simple protection of the legal and economic interests of their members and other persons represented by them.

Trade Organisation of Workers, Artists, and Persons engaged in a Profession

The legally recognised basic organisation of workers is the provincial union for each occupational group; the various provincial unions for a given branch of industry or for allied industries are grouped in a national association (or national union of associations). The national associations in turn are grouped in separate national federations for industry, agriculture, commerce, land transport and inland navigation, and banking. These are all affiliated to the Confederation of Fascist Trade Unions, which differs from the employers' central organisation by including almost all workers, with a single exception to be referred to later.

The number of provincial and national associations will clearly vary according to the different forms of activity they represent. Thus the Industrial Federation includes 93 provincial associations, grouped in 47 national associations (or national unions of associ-

ations); in the Agricultural Federation there are 6 provincial associations and 6 national associations; the Commercial Federation has 13 provincial associations and 13 national associations; in the National Federation for Land Transport and Inland Navigation there are 11 provincial associations, grouped in 6 national associations (or national unions of associations); the Banking Federation is made up of 2 provincial associations and 2 corresponding national associations.

The workers engaged in maritime and aerial transport, who already had a distinct trade union organisation of their own, are not affiliated to the Confederation of Fascist Trade Unions. For reasons connected with the special nature of their work, their organisation has been recognised as autonomous, and is known as the Autonomous Fascist Federation of Maritime and Aerial Transport Workers. It is made up of two large associations — the National Maritime Association and the National Aeronautical Association; these in turn are subdivided into smaller associations for different categories of workers.

The National Federation of Intellectual Workers, which includes artists and persons engaged in a profession, also belongs to the Confederation of Fascist Trade Unions, as provided in the Act. These workers, who were formerly grouped in four provincial associations — of artists, persons engaged in legal and financial professions, those engaged in technical professions, and those in the medical and allied professions (e.g. doctors, nurses, midwives, pharmaceutical chemists, and veterinary surgeons) — are now classified in 18 primary associations, each of which includes the workers engaged in a specific activity or art (e.g. authors and writers, musicians, etc.). These primary associations are grouped in 16 national associations.

General Characteristics of the Rules of Recognised Trade Associations

The legally recognised trade associations, whether of employers, workers, or artists and persons engaged in a profession, briefly enumerated in the preceding paragraphs, naturally differ profoundly as regards the form of activity exercised by them, the number and territorial distribution of their members, the special conditions of production or work of the category they represent, etc. These differences are accordingly reflected in the form and contents of their Rules, which cannot all be uniform.

Legal recognition of trade associations, in accordance with the terms of the Italian Act, is to be granted by means of a Royal Decree after the opinion of the Council of State has been heard. Each association is to have its own Rules, which must conform with certain requirements.

As a result of this provision, the Ministry of Corporations, in the initial phase of its activity, has had to examine an enormous quantity of Rules, differing with the various organisations to which they related. Some of these organisations (e.g. those belonging to the Confederation of Fascist Trade Unions) have standard Rules which are the same for all affiliated associations; the reason for this being the extreme difficulty found in the early days of the corporative reform in drafting appropriate rules for each of the several thousand associations which make up the Confederation. Other associations, however (e.g. those belonging to the Confederation of Industries), have their own special Rules which differ in every case.

Trade organisation is not yet complete, although great progress has been made; up to the present, a total of 19 Royal Decrees according recognition have been promulgated, under which 53 sets of Rules for associations of various grades have been approved. In addition, 7 Royal Decrees for the approval of 105 sets of Rules are now in preparation; and only 16 sets have still to be examined, relating to associations which have already applied for recognition.

Even at this early stage, however, it is possible to distinguish certain characteristics that are common to all these many and varied sets of Rules, in spite of their intrinsic diversity.

First of all, the Ministry of Corporations, acting upon the principle of allowing the trade associations all possible liberty, and taking advantage of an express provision in the Regulations, has uniformly delegated to the Confederations the ordinary functions of supervision and control in respect of many of the provisions of a financial character. This does not mean that the state has renounced its right to see that the trade associations are functioning correctly or that the latter are given complete freedom, but only that state supervision is centralised and facilitated, since direct control over the acts of the Confederations involves indirect control over those of the affiliated associations. The state also reserves the right to annul any act on the part of a legally recognised trade association which is not in conformity with the Act, the Regulations, or the Rules and essential objects of the association. Further,

the most important duties (e.g. the making of payments from the guarantee fund to provide for failure on the part of a trade association to fulfil its obligations) are not delegated to the Confederations; and the state may at any time take steps to supervise and control the functioning of an organisation of any grade.

It may also be observed in a general way that all the Confederations have tried to build up a strong organisation under which wide powers of direction, control, and co-ordination are reserved to the central body, which will be responsible for all corporate action by the category it represents, as contrasted with the lower-grade associations affiliated to it. Thus, as regards the conclusion of collective contracts of employment, the central organisation has ample powers, which may take the form of requiring the contract to be submitted for the approval of the Confederation either before or after signature, the Confederation having the right to act instead of the primary association concerned.

This tendency towards centralisation appears natural enough in the early stages of the establishment and functioning of the system. It is imperative that one of the most delicate attributes arising out of the function of a public body entrusted to the unions shall not be left to the mercy of the masses, who are liable to become unstable and irritable. Later on, when the system is functioning as a complete whole, the conclusion of collective contracts may well be entrusted to the primary associations, as indicated by the Labour Charter (section XI), which, however, still recognises the right of higher-grade associations to substitute themselves for those of primary grade.

Further, regulations on disciplinary powers over their members, which are of undoubted importance among the multiplicity of duties entrusted to the unions, are contained in the Rules of almost all of them, and on similar lines: details as to penalties, competence, and appeals are specified, the final appeal lying to the Ministry of Corporations in accordance with the law. The Rules do not, however, contain complicated disciplinary regulations minutely defining offences and the corresponding penalties, and establishing special and detailed forms of procedure for their application. It seemed preferable to leave certain discretionary powers in these matters, with freedom from any fixed form, to the directive organs of the associations concerned, the only stipulation being that the possibility of appeal — in the last instance to the Ministry itself — must be guaranteed to the parties concerned.

Trade Associations and Associated Bodies

One of the principal characteristics of the Italian legislation on collective relations in connection with employment, as already pointed out in speaking of the Federation of Handicrafts Associations, is that it does not limit the scope of recognised associations to the protection of the economic and moral interests of their members, but requires that the associations shall also include among their purposes provision for the relief, instruction, and moral and civic training of their members.

These purposes, which are explicitly set out in each set of Rules, may be carried out by means of the organisation of trade schools, institutions for financial relief and for moral and civic training, and institutions for the purpose of developing and improving national production, culture, or art. Such institutions may acquire legal personality by Royal Decree, upon the request of the higher-grade trade associations to which they belong. Some of them, so far as the trade associations of employers are concerned, have already been recognised; e.g. the Economic and Financial Section of the Banking Confederation, which has specific functions concerned with the economic relief and technical and cultural development of the bodies it represents, is the former Italian Banking Association which, in the form of a body attached to the trade association, has continued to perform the functions for which it was founded.

The same applies to the Confederation of Industries and the Cotton Manufacturers' Association. The latter is an institution attached to the Federation of the Cotton Industry, and its objects include economic relief, improvement of production, technical information, arbitration, etc. Within the Confederation of Industries itself there are other collateral institutions whose claims for recognition are now under consideration, such as the associations for the engineering, metal, and wool industries, whose objects include economic relief and technical assistance for their members.

As regards trade associations of workers, all that has been accomplished up to the present is that steps have been taken to obtain recognition of a Fascist Institute of agricultural technical science and propaganda. It is intended that this should be attached to the Federation of Agricultural Fascist Trade Unions, its function being to co-ordinate and discipline all private activities whose object is the improvement of agricultural technique, experiment, and instruction.

It is to be noted that the Rules of organisations belonging to the National Confederation of Fascist Trade Unions lay special emphasis upon the relief work which they have to perform in collaboration with the National Relief Institution (*Patronato Nazionale*) — a semi-official body whose function is to centralise all relief work or protective activities other than those of a strictly trade union character.

Many of the workers' unions have also organised and manage employment exchanges; these will be placed under the supervision and discipline of the corporative bodies (cf. section XXIII of the Labour Charter) when the latter are set up, and will function as a logical corollary and indispensable complement to the system.

Rules for the Levying, Collection, and Distribution of Contributions

In order to carry out their functions, trade associations are empowered to levy upon all persons legally represented by them a compulsory annual contribution not exceeding the amount of one day's wages, and also in certain circumstances a supplementary contribution.

The Regulations laid down certain rules in this respect, based mainly upon the assumption that a register of contributors existed for each association. When the law first came into operation, however, such a system could not have worked, since trade organisations for many kinds of activity, as we have already seen, have only just been formed, so that the lists of persons represented are very far from being either complete or accurate.

On the other hand, the necessity of supplying the associations with the material means of existence made it imperative for the legislature to formulate provisional rules for the levying, collection, and distribution of trade association contributions for the current year. These rules, when tested by experience, may furnish elements for incorporation in the ordinary system of the law, for subsequent use. Certain modifications have already been made in the principle of fixing the contribution at the value of a day's work. For certain categories of workers it has in practice been found preferable to fix *a priori* an assumed average day's wage, while for certain categories of employers it has been found necessary, though as a quite provisional and exceptional measure, to replace the contribution of one day's wages for every worker in their employment

by a contribution fixed *a priori* on the basis of certain assumptions, and in the form of a supplement to other taxes.

This, however, does not affect the fact that contributions levied, administered, and distributed by the associations concerned, under the control and supervision of the state and in accordance with rules fixed by law, maintain intact their practical function, i.e. that of securing the proportional payment, by the individuals represented, of the costs incurred by the trade associations for their protection. The level at which the contributions are fixed, as a purely provisional measure, is extremely low — lower, indeed, than that of the contributions levied upon their members by the old free trade organisations which existed prior to the passing of the Act.

Organisation of the Staff of Public Institutions

Public officials are excluded from membership of a trade association. It is in fact felt that the relations between a public undertaking and its staff cannot be regarded from the point of view of mere private law. The establishment of trade associations by such persons would constitute a form of class defence inadmissible as against undertakings that represent the community. The state has none the less consented to the constitution of associations of public officials. These associations are not to have either legal personality or the powers granted to the trade associations properly so called; but they may, within the limits imposed by discipline and order, represent the wishes and aspirations of their members before the responsible authorities. For certain categories of officials, however, whose duties concern the more delicate and important state activities, even this attenuated form of association is absolutely prohibited; this applies to magistrates, teachers in institutions for higher and intermediate education, officers and men of the armed forces, and officials and employees of the Ministries of the Interior, Foreign Affairs, the Colonies, and Corporations.

Up to the present two general associations have been authorised. One of these includes all persons employed by the state, the communes, the provinces, and semi-public institutions; the other persons employed in state industrial undertakings. In addition, separate national associations have been recognised for elementary school teachers, the staff of the state railways, state postal, telegraph, and telephone employees, country post-masters and other state employees in rural districts.

Thus the concept of " state employees ", from the point of view of freedom to join an association, has been taken in a broad sense, taking into account the complexity of the functions of the state, and not in a literal or narrow one. More precisely, it includes not merely organic but also functional dependence upon the state : thus tax-farmers and assessors and collectors of direct taxes are excluded from membership of a trade association and are instead grouped in two authorised associations of their own, in view of the special duties they perform, in the interests of the state and under its control.

Further, the Italian system excludes from the field of application of the law on collective relations in connection with employment (cf. section 3 of the Regulations of 1 July 1926), not only the state, the provinces, the communes, and public charitable institutions, but also certain specified public undertakings and semi-official (*parastatali*) bodies in general.

The list of bodies given in the section referred to above has been interpreted by the Ministry of Corporations as illustrative and not restrictive. In these early stages of the application of the Act on Associations, numerous questions have been and are still being solved as to the character of special organisations of various kinds from the point of view of trade organisation. It has been decided that in principle the public nature of an undertaking is determined by the functions of general interest fulfilled by it, its executive authority, the control and supervision exercised by the state over its operations, and in some cases the fact of its having been set up by the state itself to carry out certain tasks which the state found it inopportune or inconvenient to undertake directly. An undertaking satisfying these criteria and its staff are not allowed to belong to trade associations, whether of employers or of employed, and are outside the field of application of the Act on collective relations in connection with employment. The following undertakings, for example, are thus excluded from the right of belonging to a trade association ; the administrative staff of the Royal Household, land improvement consortiums of primar grade, credit institutions for sufferers from earthquakes, the inspectorate (*Provveditorato*) of the Port of Venice, and the General Petroleum Undertaking.

Mixed Activities in relation to Trade Organisation

As has been seen, the Italian law divides the activities of production and labour into six great categories, within which are grouped the respective associations of employers and of employed, while artists and persons engaged in a profession are grouped in a single organisation. Nevertheless, there are in practice numerous cases of mixed activities which belong to more than one of these categories. For these the legislature, instead of accepting the principle of classifying them according to their main activity, has decided that they may belong to a number of trade associations corresponding to their various activities. In any case, even if they do not join an association (which it will be recalled is optional), the legal representation of these mixed activities is entrusted to the corresponding trade associations.

This solution, which is in full agreement with both the principles of the law and the intentions of the legislature, has been and is still being applied in numerous doubtful and complex cases, which constantly occur in practice. Thus it has been decided that membership of more than one association is permissible for manufacturers who also carry on offices for the sale of their products; for persons working as carriers who also undertake the duties of commission agents; for doctors who, in addition to practising independently, also hold a post in a clinic, hospital, etc.; for chemists and druggists who, in addition to their professional work, carry on some form of commercial activity, which may or may not be related to the former; and for many other cases of activities belonging to more than one of the specified categories.

Conclusion

Such, briefly stated and summarised, is the work so far accomplished in the way of trade organisation of all the various economic activities of the nation. The Ministry of Corporations has throughout kept in view the theoretical and practical ends chosen by the legislature as the basis of the system, which regulates the complex problems arising out of collective relations in connection with employment in an entirely original manner. Under this system the associations are not regarded merely as trade or political organisations, but as public bodies invested with important

functions of representation, protection, and discipline of their members and other persons represented by them; in virtue of these functions, they are endowed with wide autonomous powers, but are subject to the supervision and protection of the state — i.e. of the nation as a whole. Here the state has abandoned its old attitude of ignorance and indifference to labour problems — considered as relationships under private law pure and simple — and has become the supreme organ of discipline within the sphere of labour law, whose development and completion it has come to regard as one of its most important, delicate and complex functions.

National Corporative Organisation in Spanish Industry

by

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In spite of the diversity of the legal methods that have been adopted in recent years for the purpose of dealing with the problem of right of association, most recent measures have one common feature: trade combinations are, in view of the social importance of the free development of the trade union movement, recognised and granted legal status. In Spain and Italy, on the contrary, the legislation adopted in 1926 is based on a different conception. Both systems involve a general regulation of the whole field of social and trade union life under direct supervision of the state. There are, however, considerable differences between them in the methods adopted. The preceding article has shown the present form of trade organisation in Italy. Without embarking on a detailed comparative analysis, it will suffice to note that the feature that distinguishes the Spanish system fundamentally from the Italian is that it does not begin by changing the status of trade unions: all legally constituted trade associations have the right to appoint their representatives on the various corporative bodies (Joint Committees, Mixed Commissions, Corporation Councils, and the Delegate Commission of the Corporation Councils). In the following article Count de Altea gives a short historical survey of the legislation on trade representation adopted since 1920, followed by an account of the characteristic features of the national corporative organisation instituted in Spain by the Royal Decree of 26 November 1926.

IN THE study of legislative reforms aiming at the establishment of conciliation machinery for the settlement of differences and the determination of standards and conditions of work as between employers and workers — a question of daily increasing interest — the new Spanish legislation on joint industrial associations, promulgated under the title " National Corporative Organ-

isation" (*Organización Corporativa Nacional*), deserves a distinguished and prominent place.

The legislation in question is of importance not only in virtue of the character of the reform and the ideas, doctrines, and principles which inspired it, but also in view of the liberal measure of collective approval its promulgation has obtained. This is all the more worthy of attention inasmuch as the constitution of the joint committees is based on the voluntary action of the parties concerned, and in no previous instance, either in Spain, or, the writer believes, in any other country, has there been a greater demand for the constitution of such bodies or a greater desire to accept a new system than in the present case, the intention being to demonstrate the efficacy of government measures when these are based upon and inspired by latent or explicit national opinions or aspirations.

I

Some reference must be made to the legislative measures which preceded and provided a basis for the new Decree.

These measures were the Royal Decree of 24 April 1920, creating the first Mixed Labour Commission; the Royal Decree of 5 October 1922, regulating the establishment of permanent and temporary joint committees, an enactment in which the present writer had the honour of collaborating; and the Royal Decree of 25 August 1923, relating to strikes of public interest.

The first of these Decrees, issued by the former Conservative Minister, Mr. Fernandez Prida, embodied the aspirations of the most representative industrial and mercantile elements, and the most representative elements among commercial workers and employers in Barcelona (banking, transport, wholesale trade, and retail trade). It aimed at the amicable settlement of differences between employers and workers, and established a Joint Committee for each of the four groups mentioned, and a Mixed Commission consisting of authorised representatives of each of the four Committees and presided over by a magistrate of the Court of Barcelona.

The Joint Committees' function was conciliatory; they had to submit all their decisions relating to wages, hours of work, and working regulations, which must of course in each case be within the provisions of the law on the subject, to the Mixed Commission for approval.

The Mixed Commission had to settle all questions submitted to it by the Joint Committees ; it was further competent to fix the minimum wages payable in each commercial category, to secure the observation of the laws for the protection of workers, to make proposals to the Government for legislative reforms, and to organise technical and administrative offices. Its principal task was to unify and harmonise the action of the four Joint Committees and to endeavour to secure an amicable settlement of any disputes which might arise.

The limited character of the Royal Decree of 24 April 1920, dealing, as it did, exclusively with Barcelona and with commercial undertakings, shows that, apart from its being due to the initiative of the commercial classes only, it was merely an experiment, although taking the form of a permanent organisation. Up to that time such joint organisations had been purely temporary, and had arisen spontaneously, without legislative action, for the settlement of particular disputes as they occurred.

It is only just to recognise that the Mixed Commission created by Mr. Fernandez Prida has rendered great services to the cause of social peace and the settlement of questions between employers and workers in the branch of economic activity in question in Barcelona.

The Royal Decree of 5 October 1922[1] was intended to give effect to the wishes submitted to the Ministry of Labour by various employers' and workers' organisations and to profit by the experience already acquired. It recognised the desirability of replacing the system of isolated provisions for the momentary settlement of particular disputes by the promulgation of rules of a general character which should serve as a basis for their own application to each concrete case, and should result in the constitution of permanent organs. It laid down the bases for the constitution of joint committees for the settlement of disputes between capital and labour in particular industries or branches of production. Such a committee might be set up either on official initiative, or at the request of the parties concerned, and might be either *ad hoc* or permanent, according to the circumstances. Permanent committees could only be established by Royal Order.

For determining the chracteristics of each joint committee account was to be taken of the principal classes of employment,

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[1] International Labour Office : *Legislative Series*, 1922, Sp.2.

namely, agriculture, commerce, industry, mining, and transport. Within each class of employment the system of joint committees was to be formed on the basis of industries and groups of occupations or trades. Committees might be local or regional, or might be formed for an undertaking employing more than 500 workers and employees, according to the organisation and requirements of each occupation.

Each joint committee consisted of equal numbers of employers and workers, the number varying according to the importance of the elements represented. The chairman was appointed by the unanimous votes of the workers' and employers' representatives; he might not belong to the industry or occupation in question. In default of unanimity, he was appointed by the Ministry of Labour.

The chairman had a casting vote only if this was previously agreed to unanimously by the members of the committee. Otherwise he could intervene merely as a conciliator and to encourage agreement.

On *ad hoc* joint committees the employers' and workers' representatives were appointed by the authorities in agreement with the authorised representatives of the employers and workers affected by the dispute in question.

On permanent joint committees the employers' and workers' representatives were appointed by the lawfully constituted trade associations of employers and workers in the industry, occupation, or group in question, members of such associations being eligible without distinction of sex.

Agreements arrived at by joint committees could be rendered enforceable only by an absolute majority of votes. The powers of each committee were determined by the order authorising its establishment[1].

The Royal Decree of 25 August 1923 applied the type of *ad hoc* joint committee established by the Royal Decree of October 1922 to claims and disputes between employers and workers in undertakings carrying on public services under an administrative concession — subject, of course, to the reservations, restrictions, approval of authorities, and guarantees appropriate to the special character of this class of services[2].

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[1] Cf. *Boletin del Instituto de Reformas Sociales*, Nos. CCXXI and CCXXII, pp. 844-847.

[2] *Idem*, No. CCXXXI, pp. 598-606.

II

The success of the joint committees established under the above Decrees, the numerous disputes avoided as a result of their action, and the example, in spite of differences, of the legislation of other countries, particularly Belgium, influenced the government measure prepared by Mr. Aunós, Minister of Labour, Commerce, and Industry, namely, the Royal Decree of 26 November 1926 on national corporative organisation.

According to section 1 of this Decree :

> The elements constituting Spanish vocational activity shall be organised on the basis of specialised and classified bodies, to each of which shall be given official representation by the appointment of joint committees with graduated jurisdiction.

This system of joint committees is based upon the classification and definition of the occupations which together constitute the national industry. For this purpose all industries, employments, trades, and occupations are classified in 27 corporative groups, comprised under the three headings of *primary production* (mining and fishing), *secondary production* (transforming industries), and *services, commerce, and miscellaneous*[1].

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[1] A. Primary production :
(1) Mining (mines, quarries, and salt pits), exploitation of all classes of veins or seams, springs and sources of water ;
(2) Fishing.
B. Secondary production :
(3) Electricity, gas, and water : electricity, gas, compressed air, and similar works, supply of water and hydraulic power ;
(4) Iron and other metal working and allied industries ;
(5) Building materials ;
(6) Building ;
(7) Furniture industry ;
(8) Textile industries ;
(9) Clothing and millinery industry ;
(10) Luxury industries ;
(11) Electrical and scientific instruments ;
(12) Printing and allied trades ;
(13) Chemical industries ;
(14) Milling and baking ;
(15) Preserved food industry ;
(16) Food industries ;
(17) Sugar and alcohol.
C. Services, commerce and miscellaneous :
(18) Press and publishing ;
(19) Land transport ;
(20) Maritime, river, and air transport ;
(21) Communications ;
(22) Public entertainments ;

The following are excluded from this system of joint committees: agriculture, home work (this is regulated by special provisions), domestic service, work carried on in private offices or those of liberal professions, the work of undertakings and estates direct y exploited by the government, and public services carried on by the state or by a province, municipality, or any other official body. In the case of public services carried on under contracts or concessions, the government may authorise the formation of joint committees in such form as appears most suitable to the satisfactory working of the service in question where there is no special provision to the contrary.

The four grades of the system are the Joint Committee, the Mixed Commission, the Corporation Council, and the Delegate Commission of the Corporation Councils.

The Joint Committees are public institutions established with the primary object of regulating the activity of the occupation or group of occupations concerned, within the provisions of the law.

The creation of these Committees is entrusted to the Ministry of Labour.

Each occupational corporative unit is to be represented within its respective locality or localities by as many Joint Committees as the trades or occupations it comprises.

Exceptionally, where the character of a particular industry so requires, inter-local Joint Committees may be established in districts of a special industrial character.

The local Joint Committee for each industry will consist of five employers and five workers, with an equal number of substitutes, appointed by employers and workers, and a chairman and vice-chairman, who must be unconnected with the occupation and will be appointed by the Ministry of Labour from a list of three names proposed by the Civil Governor of the Province. The other officers (second vice-chairman, secretary, treasurer, and accountant) will be elected by the employer and worker members of the Committee from among themselves, two from each group.

When the chairman is present, the vice-chairman appointed by the government will be entitled to speak, but not to vote.

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(23) Hotel industry;
(24) Hygienic services;
(25) Commerce;
(26) Business offices and banking;
(27) Various industries and occupations.

In the Decree the sub-groups are set out in further detail, showing clearly what each comprises.

The worker and employer members of the local Joint Committees will be elected respectively by the workers' and employers' trade organisations of the industry, trade, occupation, or group of industries, trades, or occupations in question lawfully constituted and included in the electoral register prepared by the Ministry of Labour for purposes of occupational representation (election of the Council of Labour, the Delegations to the Council of Labour, and the Industrial Courts).

This register is regulated by an earlier enactment, the Royal Decree of 5 March 1926. Under this Decree all workers' or employers' associations are entitled to be entered in the register which have existed for at least six months, and which, in the case of employers' associations, are constituted in accordance with the law on associations or on agricultural unions, or have the character of civil associations or commercial companies employing more than 300 workers, and, in the case of workers' associations, are lawfully constituted by workers exclusively for the protection of their occupational interests, without interference in their constitution or working by any outside interests. The register is compiled by the General Directorate of Labour and Social Action. There is a right of appeal to the Minister against any entry or refusal to enter.

These provisions show the genuinely democratic principles which inspired the establishment of the system under examination. So far from the right of appointing representatives being confined to any particular union or association, all registered associations, without distinction of opinions, are entitled to participate in their election. It is only just to add that no practical difficulty has been encountered as to the entry in the register of lawfully constituted associations. This explains the evident fact that the system has been equally accepted by workers of all shades of opinion.

For the appointment of representatives all the members of the respective associations possess electoral rights ; but where an association includes various industries, occupations, or employments, only those members belonging to the occupation or group with which the Committee is concerned are entitled to vote. Voting in each workers' association will take place in accordance with the regulations of the association and in the presence of a representative of the authorities.

Where no associations exist, the workers and employers affected by the constitution of the Committee will appoint their respective representatives at separate meetings convened by the competent

authority and held in accordance with the provisions of the Act of 1880 regulating the exercise of the right of meeting.

Inter-local Joint Committees will be elected by the respective associations for the industry and area concerned, in the same form and subject to the same provisions as to entry in the occupational register.

The principle of elective representation of employers and workers is subject to only one exception. " When, after the constitution of a local or inter-local Joint Committee, its working is prevented by the systematic and unjustifiable refusal of one of the two parties concerned to appoint its representatives, the Ministry of Labour may appoint these members. " This provision constitutes an exceptional power and one much more restricted than those conferred on the Ministry of Labour in Belgium by section 3 of the Royal Decree of May 1926 on conciliation and arbitration committees[1].

The functions of the local and inter-local Committees are :

(1) To determine for the respective trade or occupation, or group of trades and occupations, the conditions for the regulation of work (remuneration, hours of work, rest periods) and generally the conditions which may serve as a basis for contracts of employment, and to impose suitable penalties on persons contravening these decisions ;

(2) To prevent industrial disputes and to try to settle them if they arise ;

(3) To adjust individual or collective differences between employers and workers submitted to them by the parties ;

(4) To organise labour exchanges ;

(5) To carry out any other social function which may be beneficial to the occupation concerned.

Joint Committees may voluntarily combine to constitute a Mixed Commission when the industrial functions of the elements composing the Committees are sufficiently homogeneous to render possible simultaneous and concurrent action in the work of production.

The Mixed Commission, which is modelled on the type of the Mixed Commission of Commerce of Barcelona described at the beginning of this article, is to consist of three employers' representatives and three workers' representatives elected by each Joint

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[1] Cf. *Industrial and Labour Information*, Vol. XIX, No. 1, pp. 12-16.

Committee from its own members, with a chairman and vice-chairman unconnected with the occupation and appointed by the government.

The Mixed Commission is to be constituted by Royal Decree; it will be competent to consider, for the purpose of approving and giving effect to the same, all decisions of the Joint Committees of its group relating to the regulation of work, hours of work, rest periods, termination of employment, and other conditions serving as a basis for contracts of employment. In this matter they will have the powers hitherto belonging to the Industrial Courts.

The Mixed Commission will also deal with the infringement of these decisions and will impose suitable economic penalties on proof of infringement, either on the application of one of the parties concerned or otherwise.

The Decree further confers on the Mixed Commissions the power of endeavouring to secure the amicable settlement of disputes and differences between employers and workers and of giving effect to conciliation awards which the parties have agreed to accept. This power is also conferred on the Joint Committees. Another function common to both bodies is the establishment or support of institutions for technical and vocational education and for the protection or welfare of the workers, and the carrying out of investigations of a social character and the publication of their results.

In the ascending gradation established by the Decree — and it is to be noted that many interesting details are here omitted which can be found in the text of the Decree — the Mixed Commission is followed by the Corporation Council.

A Corporation will consist of the combination of all the Joint Committees for each of the 27 groups previously enumerated. Each Corporation will have a Council, to be the central organ of the occupation, consisting of a chairman and vice-chairman appointed by Royal Decree, and eight employers and eight workers, with an equal number of substitutes, elected by the Joint Committees constituting the Corporation. In this case, though not in the Committees or Commissions, there is a right of representation for minorities in certain conditions and circumstances (section 30 of the Decree).

The functions assigned to the Corporation Council are as follows :

(1) As a higher joint authority to hear all claims that may arise in regard to agreements of a general character and as such affecting the whole industry or an important branch of an industry;

(2) To determine the conditions for the regulation of labour in the case of regulations or contracts binding upon occupational groups

of more than one locality or district, subject in such cases to appeal to the Ministry of Labour, which shall decide after hearing the Delegate Commission;

(3) To hear and decide in specified cases appeals from decisions of local or inter-local Joint Committees and to endeavour to settle disputes which are within its competence or which the local or inter-local Committees have failed to settle;

(4) To bring to the knowledge of the government all such social facts as may contribute to the formation of a body of experience likely to be of service for the development and guidance of legislation;

(5) Subject to the approval of the Ministry of Labour, after hearing the Delegate Commission of Councils, to hold congresses with a view to promoting the progress of the industry or branch of industry concerned, the chairman of the Corporation being in such case chairman of the congress and the employer and worker members of the Council officers of the organising board;

(6) To provide the government with information on questions relating to technical and vocational education and to all social work capable of being carried out in each industry by direct collaboration between employers and workers;

(7) To work for the intensification of corporative activity and of the joint action of the various interests represented, and to encourage social welfare institutions among its members;

(8) To adjust disputes between Joint Committees of different localities but the same trade, and to lay down general principles for the settlement of disputes which may be occasioned by unemployment within the branches of industry subject to its jurisdiction; for which purpose the employment exchanges of the said Committees shall furnish the Council with the necessary information;

(9) To make an official collection, subject to the previous approval of the Ministry of Labour, of the provisions in force in the branches of industry within its jurisdiction, in virtue of decisions of Joint Committees, Mixed Commissions, and of the Council itself.

Finally, as co-ordinating body between the various Corporation Councils, there is the Delegate Commission of the Councils. This is a central organisation acting in the Ministry of Labour as a direct advisory organ for the Minister in questions relating to the corporations and affecting both workers and employers; it also hears the appeals referred to below and provides the government with information on matters of social policy and legislation, technical and vocational education, and social welfare.

The Delegate Commission of the Corporation Councils consists of a chairman and vice-chairman appointed by Royal Decree, a secretary, and 7 employers and 7 workers, with an equal number of substitutes, elected in Madrid by the referees appointed by the Corporation Councils (one referee for each Council). In addition, the Director General of Labour and Social Action and the Inspector General of Labour or the Deputy Inspector are *ex officio* members.

All the above joint organisations are renewable every five years, without limit to the right of re-election.

Space does not permit of a detailed enumeration of the remaining provisions of the Decree. It is, however, of interest to observe that the chairman of the Joint Committee has not a casting vote except in case of equality on a second vote, his functions being in other cases limited to conciliation and endeavours to secure agreement; that the Joint Committees forming a Mixed Commission must submit their decisions to the latter in order that they may become valid; that decisions of Committees which contravene the law or exceed the limits of their powers may be suspended provisionally by administrative authority or definitively by the Ministry; that the Joint Committee and the Mixed Commission may, after hearing the person accused, impose pecuniary penalties, which may be increased in case of a second or subsequent offence, subject to appeal to the higher bodies or to a full sitting of the Committee or Commission, according to the circumstances and the amount of the fine.

When a Joint Committee meets during legal hours of work, worker members attending the meeting are entitled to the payment of their wages in full by their employers.

Joint Committees and Mixed Commissions may be suspended or dissolved after consultation with the Delegate Commission of the Councils, if they adopt an illegal attitude or one calculated to disturb public order; but in all cases of dissolution they must be reconstituted by a new election within a period of ten days.

III

In addition to transitional provisions for the purpose of adapting to the new legislation joint organisations constituted and existing under previous legislation, the Minister of Labour has provided that, until the Corporation Councils are in operation and it is accordingly possible to proceed to the election by them of the Delegate Commission, an Interim Commission shall be constituted for the purpose of exercising powers of advice and suggestion, with a view to completing, with the assistance of persons of authority in social matters, the necessary work of organisation for the constitution and working of all the organisations composing the new system.

As indicated at the beginning of this article, the operations of this Interim Commission have made manifest the consensus of opinion on the reform and the readiness of all the parties concerned to collaborate in putting it into effect. The following figures, showing the number of petitions for the constitution of Joint Committees from 1 January to 10 February, classified according to the groups set out in the Decree, are evidence of this :

Group	Number of petitions
Hotel industry	39
Electricity, gas, and water	24
Land transport	16
Metal industries	17
Printing and allied trades	14
Milling and baking	17
Luxury industries	12
Building	16
Public entertainments	10
Clothing and millinery industry	12
Textile industries	11
Hygienic services	8
Furniture industry	9
Commerce	11
Food industries	6
Chemical industries	7
Press	8
Building materials	9
Business offices and banking	5
Miscellaneous	8
Total	259

It is to be noted that the number of petitions continues to increase considerably, some being formulated by workers' organisations and some by employers' organisations ; that the Interim Commission has to meet almost every week to deal with petitions and applications for advice, which show a great and increasing activity directed to the promotion of the national system of joint organisation ; that the journalists of the central district have constituted an inter-local Committee with a view to maintaining all the claims and improvements obtained in regard to conditions of work, particularly as regards the weekly rest by continuing the non-publication of newspapers on one day of the week ; that the question of constituting a Joint Committee of a special character for public entertainment undertakings and their staffs has also been raised ; that the associations of authors and publicists are considering an application for the formation of a Committee for dealing with matters relating to publishing contracts ; and that since the promulgation of the Decree, as may easily be observed,

notices and information relating to petitions, desires, and schemes for the constitution of Joint Committees have occupied an important place in the daily press.

The present is therefore a very interesting constructive period as regards the first grade of the system, namely, the Joint Committees. The experience of the past, however, particularly in regard to the Barcelona Mixed Commission, justifies confidence in the subsequent formation of the higher bodies in the corporative system and its full, normal, and regular working, admitting of further and wider development.

In the preamble to the Decree, in interviews published in the press, and in public speeches, the Minister of Labour, Mr. Aunós, has emphasised the significance and scope of the new provisions. He has also pointed out the subsequent developments that the corporative organisation may attain — not only as an effective means of regulating relations between employers and workers and creating permanent machinery for the prevention and settlement of disputes; not only as constituting new and effective machinery for the normal application and enforcement of social legislation; but also as a means of establishing an organisation of labour and industry based on the realities of the national life, recognising and encouraging spontaneous initiative and free from restrictions by the state, except such indispensable restrictions as arise from the fundamental obligation to maintain public order, which is the right of all, and to furnish adequate channels for the national life.

This reform has not tried to base the corporative organisation on compulsory membership of a single union, by means of a system of associations exclusively recognised as official by the state; but starting from the realities of industrial life, it has adopted the principle that an association need only comply with the provisions established by law and will remain free so long as it adapts itself to these provisions; and at the same time that every branch of industry or commerce must necessarily be included, as regards the contract of employment, within the jurisdiction of a Joint Committee and a national Corporation.

The Minister considers that the application of the system will produce a beneficial regularity in the relations between capital and labour, and provide a means of harmonising the progressive development of industry with the satisfaction of the just aspirations of the workers, and a method of obtaining, by the daily action of joint arbitral bodies, new modifications of the laws regulating labour.

Although this prediction can at present only have the value of a strong conviction, inspired by an admirable spirit of justice and goodwill, and subject as always to the experimental results that may follow the enforcement of the law, there is no doubt that the conception of the system constitutes a most interesting contribution to the general body of institutions for conciliation and arbitration created in various countries. And there is no doubt also that the sense of reality inspiring its provisions establishes at least a high degree of probability that it will be effective.

The Present Tendencies of Compulsory Sickness Insurance

In view of the Tenth Session of the Conference, whose agenda includes the problem of sickness insurance, the International Labour Office has compiled a general survey of the documents and information it has collected on this question; the survey, which will be published in the Series of Studies and Reports under the title "Compulsory Sickness Insurance", has been submitted to the Delegates in proof. The following article reproduces the substance of the chapter dealing with the present tendencies of sickness insurance, which seems of sufficient general interest to warrant presentation in this form to readers of the Review. *A brief historical survey is followed by an examination of the characteristic features of the fundamental aspects of the problem (scope, benefits, the sharing of the cost, and insurance institutions), the whole based on an analysis of the facts.*

Introduction

SICKNESS has economic consequences which are of special gravity for wage earners, since it impairs their earning capacity at the same moment as it imposes on them expenditure, which is often very heavy, for medical treatment and drugs. Under inadequate treatment, sickness leads to physical weakness and physiological defects which find expression in premature invalidity, the degeneration of the race, the destruction of the energy needed for work, and the spread of pauperism.

The social importance of the protection of the workers against sickness increases with the growth of industrialisation, which continually augments the immense class of wage earners who derive the means of existence for themselves and their families solely from their work.

It was recognised at an early stage that individual action was insufficient, and that effective efforts towards protection must necessarily be collective. Collective provident institutions have undergone the same evolution as the economic ideas of trade associations and as political and social forces.

The first concrete measures were due to private initiative, which took upon itself the functions ignored by the indifferent and passive Liberal State. The employers, aware of the dangers of exasperation caused by undue hardship, guided by the consciousness of a social duty to be done, and wishing to ensure a stable, vigorous, and loyal body of labour, organised welfare, assistance, and insurance schemes, such as infirmaries, hospitals, hostels, and relief and pension funds. The workers combined for the defence of their interests and created friendly societies or mutual aid funds. Then the State changed its attitude, and, during the last thirty years of the nineteenth century, took a steadily increasing part in the solution of problems of workers' protection. Abandoning the old Liberalism, under the pressure of universal suffrage, of trade unions, of socialist doctrines, and also of the hardships imposed on the workers by the still anarchical development of large-scale industry, it gave both moral and financial support to the friendly society movement, which widened its field of action, went beyond the limits of the trade unions, and soon included millions of workers in thousands of funds each covering a variety of trades or occupations.

But admiration for the efforts and achievements of this magnificent voluntary movement for mutual aid must not prevent recognition that it does not constitute a satisfactory solution of the problem of the worker's insecurity. After fifty years of effort, employers' funds and friendly societies in many countries still cover only a small proportion of all wage earners. Further, existing institutions are badly distributed ; too numerous in some areas, too few or even non-existent in others, their membership remains precarious. Dispersion of effort, gaps in the structure, and overlapping perceptibly lessen the social value of national systems of voluntary insurance.

All these considerations lead gradually to the condition that the only way to secure general and effective protection against the risk of sickness is by making insurance compulsory.

The modern State, as guardian of public health and national prosperity, considers it both a right and a duty to impose compulsion. Even the devotees of individualism admit that in a well organised community a person should not be free to indulge in improvidence which leads to his becoming a charge on the rates, and that insurance is a social duty the performance of which the State may, in the general interest, enforce.

Germany in 1883, without making lengthy experiments with the

voluntary method, was the first to make sickness insurance compulsory for industrial workers : shortly afterwards, in 1885, the scheme was extended to commerce, and in 1886 to agriculture.

This creation of Bismarck's, so keenly opposed at first by the German working class, was doubtless inspired by a political motive. Its purpose was to attach the workers to the state as the defender of the capitalist system. It aimed at rendering innocuous the numerous relief funds connected with trade unions, which might have been dangerous weapons in a class struggle. By rendering secure the means of subsistence of the working class, his plan raised a solid barrier against social propaganda. It is for this reason that in the system of compulsory social insurance, introduced between 1883 and 1889, it is compulsory not only to insure but to belong to a specified fund. But whatever may have been the intentions of its originator, it is undeniable that the German scheme has exercised a great influence on the legislation of a large number of other countries.

The example of Germany was followed rather slowly by a few industrial States. Austria and Hungary in 1888 and 1891 introduced the system of compulsory sickness insurance applying to wage earners in industry, transport and commerce. At the beginning of the twentieth century, however, development became more rapid. Luxemburg in 1901, Norway in 1909, Serbia in 1910, Great Britain in 1911, and Rumania and Russia in 1912, all accepted the principle of compulsion. The main features of the Russian system have been retained in Estonia and Latvia.

The movement of legislation, held up during the war, was resumed with fresh vigour on the conclusion of peace.

The European States created by the Peace Treaties have endeavoured to perfect the insurance schemes which they have inherited. Thus, Czechoslovakia in 1919, Poland in 1920, Austria in 1921, and the Serb-Croat-Slovene Kingdom in 1922 have made sickness insurance compulsory for all wage earners. Bulgaria, which in 1918 had adopted the compulsory principle, applied it in 1924 to all classes of workers. Portugal in 1919 and Greece in 1922 likewise accepted the principle. Soviet Russia abandoned the system of public assistance established in 1918 for compulsory insurance, the plan of which was incorporated in the Labour Code when the new economic policy was inaugurated. Lithuania in 1925 adopted a sickness insurance law, which, however has not yet been put into operation. Lastly, France, after four years of investigation, discussion, and controversy, is on the point of establishing a vast

scheme of compulsory insurance against sickness, invalidity, old age, and death.

To States outside Europe industrialisation came later and they have long maintained a waiting attitude with regard to compulsory insurance. Nevertheless they are beginning to recognise the effectiveness and necessity of compulsion. Thus, Japan in 1922 and Chile in 1924 have set up compulsory systems. The Governments of Australia and South Africa have appointed commissions to study schemes of compulsory social insurance, and Brazil is preparing a Labour Code which will include compulsory sickness insurance.

After forty years of experiment, uninterrupted effort, and success in all parts of the world, the cause of the compulsory principle seems now to be finally gained, and compulsory sickness insurance appears likely to occupy an increasingly important place in the social legislation of every country.

Present Tendencies

Scope

As a rule compulsory sickness insurance laws determine their scope mainly on the basis of the contract of employment : they are intended essentially to apply to the class of wage earners and it is only by way of exception that they make insurance compulsory for some small groups of non-wage-earners.

Nevertheless in the course of recent years some schemes have been established which abandon the basis of the employment contract, extend beyond the borders of the wage-earning class, and make insurance compulsory either for all workers or for all persons of small means. This tendency towards popular insurance, however, has only manifested itself to a limited extent. Out of 23 countries where general schemes of compulsory sickness insurance are in operation, 20 have a scope restricted to wage earners and only 3 the popular system : Chile, Portugal, Switzerland (Cantons of Appenzell (Inner and Outer Rhodes), Basle Town, St. Gall, and Thurgau). Moreover, voluntary insurance for persons of small means working on their own account, which forms a complement to many compulsory schemes, has, with few exceptions, met with little success. It seems therefore that compulsory sickness insurance will long retain its character of working-class legislation.

The degree of development of workers' insurance is indeed

very unequal from country to country : the proportion of insured persons varies from 4 to 38 per cent. of the total population, and from 15 to 91 per cent. of the employed population. These wide differences are to be explained not only by the differing importance of the wage-earning class in the population of various countries but also by the operation of restrictions which in the different schemes limit the effect of the general formula of compulsory sickness insurance. These restrictions, however, are gradually being lessened or removed.

Applying at the outset to workers in certain industries only (mines, shipping), and then to industrial workers as a whole, the scope of compulsion now includes the wage earners in industry and commerce in 18 States, and restrictions based on the size of undertakings and degree of risk have, except in Japan and Estonia, disappeared altogether.

The penetration of compulsory insurance among agricultural workers has been retarded by certain practical difficulties in administering benefits which arise out of the dispersion of the insured. Experience, however, has shown that these difficulties can be surmounted. Furthermore, the situation of agricultural workers is rapidly changing : they are organising in trade unions which are asserting their need for social legislation. The consequence has been the extension of compulsory insurance to agricultural workers in 11 States, 10 of which have adopted the system in the last fifteen years.

The movement for the extension of scope embraces not only the great branches of economic activity, but also certain less important occupational groups, such as domestic servants, who formerly were regarded as members of the family, so that they had less need for insurance, and home workers, the nature of whose labour contract is sometimes difficult to define.

Insurance institutions are rapidly acquiring great practical experience, and are no longer held up by certain difficulties which arise in the case of persons who work for several employers. Now that the system of deducting the contribution from wages is becoming general, it is becoming more usual to extend the protection of insurance to temporary workers (the minimum duration of employment growing ever shorter) and to seasonal workers.

On the other hand, restrictions on the application of insurance to non-manual workers whose earnings exceed a certain maximum appear to find strong support in several countries : certain impor-

tant schemes recently proposed would indeed prescribe such a limit for manual workers as well.

Nevertheless on the whole we may say that the general formula of compulsory insurance for wage earners, without restrictions as to the nature of the occupation or undertaking or as to the character and duration of the employment, is gaining increasing acceptance, and that compulsory sickness insurance is aiming at covering the whole class of wage earners, or at least all such as are of small means.

Benefits

While the extensiveness of compulsory insurance is defined by its scope, the intensity of its effects depends on the nature of its benefits. The benefits which insurance undertakes to provide supply the proper index of its value : they correspond to the task assigned to sickness insurance in the entire effort which is being made to give the workers greater economic security and peace of mind.

It is perhaps possible to perceive, among the benefit systems of the countries where insurance is compulsory, certain common features which will indicate a tendency to evolve on convergent lines. We may enquire whether the final object of sickness insurance is the same in the several countries, or whether on the contrary the differences in the character and content of the benefits are attributable to dissimilarity of views as to the mission of insurance. The tendencies which may be referred to as characterising the development of national schemes after the war, are perhaps sufficient to represent with some degree of certainty the direction which benefit systems are taking in the several countries.

One of these tendencies by itself would seem sufficient to give a new outlook to sickness insurance. Insurance should no longer confine its efforts to meeting the needs which arise from the weakness of the human constitution : it must pursue the evil to its source and no longer accept sickness as a risk which cannot be averted. Insurance benefits must look to the origin of disease and not merely to its consequences. Their final object is not assistance but the creation of new productive capacity.

Compensation for economic loss is henceforth only one of the functions of an insurance system designed to economise human energy. The principal object is to reduce as far as possible the

damage resulting from avoidable disease and to provide healthy living conditions for the workers. Insurance would combat disease in its cause. If, however, an illness cannot be prevented, then the business of insurance is to compensate and restore to health. It can never indeed give up its original function of providing the sick with the means of subsistence to replace the earnings which cease with sickness. Nevertheless, in order to eliminate the cause of such loss of earnings, it is the endeavour of insurance to cure the sick person and restore him to active life as soon as possible. With these great tasks of cure and prevention in mind, insurance would naturally tend to complete and perfect its benefit system.

The adaptation of the benefit system to the requirements of insurance, which moreover are continually increasing, cannot be accomplished at a single stroke. The extension and improvement of benefits result from an evolution which proceeds slowly and by stages. The minimum benefits prescribed in the original law are in the first place exceeded by certain institutions operating under favourable conditions. Measures for supplementing the legal minimum are carried into effect, prove their value, and establish a new standard, towards which the less fortunate institutions will strive. The encouraging experiment which has been made leads to the legal recognition of the new development : a benefit hitherto optional now becomes compulsory for all insurance funds, the rate of benefit is increased, and the use of insurance resources for purposes of hygiene is henceforth accepted. The advance may be hardly perceptible, but, in view of the progress achieved here and there along the same lines, the result may be of importance. The transformation of the benefit system is a long-period operation ; in order to measure it, we must consider together the different changes in detail introduced in benefit systems in order to strengthen one or other of their functions. Certain improvements affect not one function only, but several at once. The reader may judge for himself the principal improvements which have been adopted during the last few years in insurance benefits.

Insurance proportions to the needs of the individual the subsistence allowance which it pays to sick persons incapable of work. It cannot, as has already been observed, renounce this, which was its original function but is no longer its principal one. Two conceptions of the purpose of sickness benefit may be admitted. According to the one, the sick person is to be maintained at his standard of living and must therefore receive a benefit which is

proportionate thereto. According to the other conception, however, a less important place is attributed to sickness benefit, which is intended to represent the strict minimum of existence during the period of inactivity. The variable benefit provides the sick person with assistance which meets his needs as determined by his standard of living : it has been universally adopted in Continental Europe since before the war. It has, moreover, been preferred by all the compulsory insurance laws which have been passed later, e.g. those of Chile, Japan, Poland, Russia and the Serb-Croat-Slovene Kingdom.

The tendency to adapt the benefit to individual needs does not stop there. It shows itself likewise in the authorisation given to institutions in several countries to increase the rate of benefit in cases of prolonged illness, when the private resources of the patient have been exhausted. Moreover — and this is an aspect which represents very clearly the tendency of insurance to individuate its benefits — family responsibilities are in a growing number of countries taken into account in deciding the benefit rate. At present, the adjustment of benefit to family responsibilities is provided for in the German mining insurance law, and in the general insurance laws of Bulgaria, Chile, Estonia, Latvia, Lithuania, and Rumania. Further family allowances to be added to the basic rate of benefit are optional in Austria, Czechoslovakia, France (Alsace-Lorraine), Germany, Great Britain, Poland, and the Serb-Croat-Slovene Kingdom. Family allowances, which afford an index of the family character that sickness insurance is assuming, are a sign of the tendency to take account of the needs of the patient, which vary according to the number of his dependants.

Restoration rather than compensation is, however, the principal function of insurance. In its origin insurance aimed at providing the sick with benefits in kind to replace the wages which they were unable to earn. Little by little this idea has yielded to a wider and more genuinely social conception which makes the restoration of the patient the first consideration. Benefits in kind intended to restore the health of the patient begin to overtake cash benefits. Medical aid, which consisted hitherto of a rapid consultation with the insurance doctor, becomes more ample and improves. Drugs, which are an indispensable complement of medical treatment, are supplied at the expense of insurance. Hospital treatment may be substituted for consultation with or visits by a doctor, and becomes an ordinary benefit. In countries where medical aid is organised

by insurance more or less collectively, the advice and attention of specialists are made available for insured persons. Such dental treatment as may be necessary is also generally provided by insurance. Special kinds of treatment, baths, and residence in convalescent homes enable the cure of insured persons to be completed under the same conditions as that of the rich.

The list of benefits in kind becomes longer and more complete; the new additional benefits prescribed in recent laws consist almost exclusively in the grant of special treatment and in the supply of curative means. In the majority of schemes the expenditure on benefits in kind is as high as the cost of cash allowances, and has even exceeded it in several countries where special attention is given to the quality of medical aid.

Sickness insurance is taking on a family character: it protects the worker's family and no longer the insured person alone. Even the first compulsory insurance laws took care of the insured woman and her child: sickness funds were made responsible for assisting insured women during confinement and for providing them with allowances to cover expenditure arising on this occasion. Post-war legislation has increased maternity benefits: insured women are entitled to the care of a midwife and in case of need to medical attention, and receive allowances during the rest period that precedes and follows confinement. In many countries the mother is entitled to a nursing benefit and a contribution to the cost of the layette. Ante-natal medical advice, reception in maternity homes, and medical care of new-born children — all these bear witness to the interest which sickness insurance is taking in the welfare of mother and child. In all countries having a sufficiently developed system of compulsory sickness insurance the latter performs the functions of maternity insurance as well.

The efforts of insurance do not stop there, however. Mindful of the social importance of protecting maternity in the working class, it does not restrict itself to assisting insured women during confinement. In a large number of countries it provides benefits for the wives and other dependants of insured persons in case of confinement. Out of 23 compulsory insurance laws 14 provide maternity benefit for the wives of insured persons.

Sickness insurance, however, goes yet further in caring for the working-class family, which is provided with a medical and drug service in the same way as the insured person himself. The movement to provide medical aid for the insured person's family, which

was visible before the war only in a few States, has become much stronger in recent years. The ravages of the war have rendered more necessary than ever the organisation of medical aid for the masses of the population. In spite of financial obstacles a large number of sickness insurance schemes have granted the right to medical aid to the insured person's family. In Czechoslovakia, Hungary, Latvia, Norway, Poland, Rumania, and the Serb-Croat-Slovene Kingdom, family medical aid forms one of the ordinary elements of the benefit scheme, and by these means medical care is made available to the majority of the working class. Assistance of this kind is likewise rendered compulsory in the new Austrian, Lithuanian, and Portuguese laws. In other countries, and especially in Germany and Luxemburg, insurance institutions have taken advantage on a large scale of the option to provide medical aid for the worker's family. Thus tens of millions of workers' households in the various countries of the European continent are entitled to free medical treatment. Sickness insurance has become the guardian of the health of the worker's family. In virtue of this task, which it has taken up widely of late years, sickness insurance has become the principal instrument of a health policy for the masses of the population.

Insurance is interested in the prevention of sickness. It realises that it is better to prevent than to cure and that a vigilant preventive policy can reduce the loss of productive capacity, render available the resources that are used up by avoidable disease, and increase the material, intellectual, and moral well-being of the community.

Already the protection which insurance gives to maternity is a sign of the desire of insurance to see that the confinement and the subsequent care of the mother and infant should be carried out and arranged for so as to secure satisfactory conditions of hygiene. The extension of maternity benefit to the dependants of the insured person which is provided by all laws drafted in the last few years is evidence of the concern of insurance in prophylaxis. The supervision of the birth and nursing of the worker's child by insurance represents a preventive measure of the greatest importance for the next generation. Moreover, medical aid for the insured person's family, the rapid development of which has already been noted, is also a most effective element of a preventive policy. The extension of medical aid to the insured person's family is in itself a preventive measure in the most real sense of the word, because it makes the doctor's services available to the masses of

the population, which thereby for the first time are placed under medical supervision and given the right to call in a doctor's aid in good time.

Insurance, however, is creating for itself other means of preventive activity, to which later on legislation gives its approval. The insurance institution gives preventive care to as large a number of persons as possible as soon as the symptoms of disease appear. Besides the protection of individuals threatened by or having a predisposition to disease, there is the general preventive policy and the campaign against social diseases and for raising the standard of the health of the masses of the population. Insurance takes its part in this campaign, and is especially energetic in countries where its territorial organisation facilitates an action which because it is concentrated is efficacious.

Insurance organises the administration of benefits. It abandons the primitive policy of leaving to the beneficiary the responsibility of choosing the means to satisfy his requirements. The primitive system is that the insured person receives a sum of money and exchanges it for the goods and services which he needs : he disposes of the benefit as he likes and enjoys in this respect great liberty, but he takes the risk of the benefit being insufficient to meet his requirements. Insurance, however, no longer seeks to discharge its responsibility by a mere allowance and the repayment of medical expenses to the patient. It endeavours to alleviate his physiological and economic needs by placing at his disposal the goods and services which he requires. The patient is provided with medical advice and drugs, and is maintained at the expense of insurance in a hospital or convalescent home.

Insurance institutions are obliged to organise the service of the benefits for which they are responsible. They have recourse to the medical equipment (hospitals, etc.) of the country and make arrangements for the provision of medical treatment and the supply of drugs and hospital accommodation on behalf of the insured. The general medical equipment of a country, however, may be inadequate for the requirements of insurance, or it may not be available under equitable conditions. The insurance institutions then set about completing the equipment which they need in order to achieve satisfactorily the cure of the sick. They make themselves responsible for the management of such establishments as dispensaries, treatment centres, maternity homes, convales-

cent homes, and create for themselves their own medical equipment. In this way, especially in countries of Central Europe, namely, Austria, Czechoslovakia, Germany, Hungary, and Poland, the sick funds, with the object of systematising the provision of benefits in kind, are completing and enriching the general medical equipment of the country.

The Sharing of the Cost

The operation of sickness insurance absorbs a certain fraction of the national revenue, and the law that makes insurance compulsory must determine what groups of the community are to share the cost, and in what proportions. This twofold problem is much more difficult to solve than the corresponding problem in workmen's compensation.

The risk of industrial accident is unquestionably a trade risk. An employer who sets in motion certain activities and brings together workers and machinery creates an organisation the working of which may cause, and does in fact cause, injuries irrespective of any question of fault on his part. The pecuniary loss resulting from industrial accidents and diseases is one of the liabilities of the undertaking, just like repairs, depreciation, or wages. The cost of accidents, therefore, is included in the overhead charges, and must be borne by the employer. Such is the principle of trade risk which is nowadays admitted almost everywhere.

The idea of responsibility, which plays so important a part in industrial accident insurance, does not afford a sufficient basis for the sharing of cost in the case of sickness insurance. Sickness may result from causes peculiar to the individual or to his occupation, or to what may be termed social causes, and accordingly the responsibility involved may be that of the insured person, the employer, or the public authorities. It is, however, hardly possible to evaluate the share of responsibility for each individual or each group. Moreover, cases of sickness which are purely fortuitous, and imply no responsibility, are very numerous.

In the absence of a juridical principle based on responsibility for the occurrence of the event insured against, regard is had to the value which insurance may offer to the insured person, the employer, or the state. The interest of the insured person as the recipient of benefits is evident. That of the employer, who needs a healthy and stable labour force, is likewise incontestable. That of the state, which is responsible for public health, is not less evi-

dent. Even so, there remains the insuperable difficulty of calculating the value of sickness insurance for any particular individual or group.

In practice the money necessary to work sickness insurance is provided by insured persons, employers, and public authorities.

The principle of the workers' contribution has been accepted in all countries except Soviet Russia. Discussion of the question whether insurance should be contributory or non-contributory has almost ceased — at least so far as sickness insurance is concerned. In the eyes of the workers and of the public in general the contribution is the feature which distinguishes insurance from relief, creates a right to benefits, and justifies the participation of insured persons in the management of insurance institutions.

The principle of the employers' contribution is likewise accepted in all countries except Rumania — and even there a plan is on foot to introduce it — and five Swiss cantons where insurance is compulsory : Appenzell (Inner and Outer Rhodes), Basle Town, St. Gall, and Thurgau, where the scope of insurance includes non-wage-earners.

On the other hand, a contribution from the state to the cost of insurance is less usual than a contribution from workers and employers. The state contribution is still a subject of controversy, and there are still many social thinkers who consider that the upkeep and depreciation of " human capital " should represent a normal element in the cost of production. They regard insurance contributions as a fraction of wages reserved by an institution collectively managed, and paid out, not to all the individuals who have contributed, but to those for whom the need arises when they fall sick. These thinkers conclude that the state is not called upon to aid in the finances of insurance.

The state, which is responsible for the organisation of public health for the population as a whole, finds a powerful aid in the insurance funds, which devote immense sums to the provision of a medical service and the creation of medical equipment ; which, moreover, are taking an increasingly active part in the sphere of sickness prevention, and are conferring ever more important benefits on the dependants of insured persons. Does not such action go beyond the duties which may be legitimately imposed directly on production, and does it not call for aid of a material character from the whole national community ?

Either of these two ideas may predominate according to the country, and at the present time a contribution from the state is

found in about half of the compulsory sickness insurance schemes in operation.

The impossibility of measuring exactly either the share of responsibility for the occurrence of the event insured against, or the advantages which any party obtains from sickness insurance, explains the variety of solutions which have been given to the problem of the distribution of cost.

The contribution of the insured person is very rarely less than, and is almost always equal to or greater than, half the total contribution. It is often as much as two-thirds of the total contribution. The contribution of employers is generally less than that of the insured : it is usually fixed at a third or a half of the total contribution, and only rarely exceeds the latter proportion. The state's contribution varies widely in both character and amount. It may take the form of a fraction of the total contribution, a subsidy for each person insured, a share in the total cost of all benefits, or frequently of certain benefits only, such as maternity and nursing benefits, or benefits in the nature of family allowances.

The fact is that the basis for the sharing of cost is the result of a complex of conditions which varies from country to country, and even in the same country at different periods : the level of wages in relation to the cost of living — i.e. the ability of insured persons to contribute ; the prosperity of production — i.e. the ability of undertakings to bear social charges ; the state of the public finances — i.e. the possibility of obtaining from the taxpayer money to subsidise insurance ; the power of trade unions of employers and workers ; the composition, tendencies, and attitude to social questions of governments and parliamentary majorities.

The solution adopted in each country is a compromise between the various conceptions and opposing interests and forces in which present considerations of expediency play a more important part than theories.

It is to be observed that the sharing of cost as fixed by the law undergoes modifications, which may be very considerable, through the very complicated working of its incidence.

The worker who is obliged by law to pay a contribution will, especially if his remuneration is hardly sufficient to cover his daily needs, demand an increase of wages. The success of his demand will depend on the supply of labour, the strength of trade union organisation, the prosperity of the undertaking, and so on. Hence the proportion of the contribution finally deducted from wages will vary widely.

The employer will tend to include his share of the contribution, and even all or part of the workers' contribution, in the cost of production, and to transfer the burden to the consumer. Whether he can succeed or not depends on the situation of his undertaking or of the industry, the purchasing power of consumers, conditions of national and international competition, tariffs, and so on, and the result will vary considerably from one undertaking to another. The state's contribution, which is paid out of national taxation, will be shared in proportions which depend on the system of taxation, and in the last resort will be borne either by the consumer, by wages, or by profits in widely varying proportions.

In view of the multiplicity of the methods adopted in the different laws, and of the incessant shifting of the incidence of the cost, it would be difficult indeed to express the actual process in a few simple formulae. Nevertheless, it may be observed that the principle of the workers' and employers' contributions is firmly established, and it may be predicted that insured persons and employers will continue to bear the greater part of the cost of sickness insurance. Lastly, it may be expected that financial aid from the public authorities will find growing justification in proportion as insurance institutions extend their activity in the sphere of public health, the prevention of social diseases, and the protection of the health of the family and the race — matters which in every country are of interest to the nation as a whole.

Insurance Institutions

It is in the methods and management of its institutions that sickness insurance exhibits most clearly its national characteristics. We may enquire how the governments of the various countries make their choice among the different types of institution : friendly societies, trade funds, works funds, and territorial funds.

Doubtless they are influenced by the advice of specialists, who are generally of opinion that the edifice of social insurance should be constructed or reconstructed on a scientific basis capable of giving the maximum result for a minimum of expense, and that consequently a system of territorial funds should be created to manage sickness, invalidity, old-age, and survivors' insurance. On the other hand, however, pressure is brought to bear upon the governments by existing insurance institutions, which naturally do not desire to disappear, and, at the time when the laws are being voted, display an intense activity in order to defend their

existence and obtain a place in the compulsory insurance scheme. To start with entirely new institutions would be dangerous, because it would arouse dangerous opposition against the compulsory principle, and so it is usual to arrange a compromise, in which the part played by the different types of institution varies with the number and power of the already existing voluntary insurance funds, the features of the public administrative system, the parliamentary majority, and the conditions of each country.

When the existing voluntary funds, whether friendly societies or trade associations, are sufficiently strong and numerous, the law that makes insurance compulsory may simply authorise them to act as insurers, and refrain from creating new institutions.

This case is rather rare. In spite of their vigorous activity, the friendly societies, employers, and trade unions have not often succeeded, especially in rural districts, in building up a sufficiently close network of funds in all parts of a country. It is therefore necessary to set up new funds for those persons whom voluntary insurance has been unable to reach.

The compromise between a desire to systematise and an anxiety to safeguard existing funds results, in many countries, in a complicated and often incoherent congeries of institutions of different types, among which insured persons are distributed in widely varying proportions.

Thus, in Great Britain, where the management of insurance is entrusted to existing institutions, 46.5 per cent. of insured persons belong to friendly societies, 42.8 per cent. to industrial assurance approved societies, 9.9 per cent. to trade unions, and 0.8 per cent. to employers' provident funds.

On the other hand, territorial funds, which do not exist in Great Britain, play an important part in Germany, while friendly societies are hardly developed : 71 per cent. of insured persons belong to territorial funds (local or rural), 24 per cent. to trade funds (works funds, guild funds, and mining funds) and only 5 per cent. to mutual aid societies, known as substitute funds.

If we study the movement of the membership of the different types of institutions in the course of the last fifteen years, it is found that in the majority of European countries the territorial funds have developed continuously, and that trade funds, and especially friendly societies, have remained stationary, or have even lost ground.

This clearly marked preference for the grouping in a single institution of all the insured persons in a particular area is explained

by the numerous and important advantages which this arrangement offers. In a territorial fund in which all kinds of trades are represented, the good and bad risks compensate one another. The membership is stable, and is much less influenced by economic disturbances and unemployment crises which might threaten the very existence of trade funds.

The territorial fund is particularly suitable for the organisation of medical benefits. It facilitates the unification of the various branches of insurance. Unification renders administration simpler and less costly, and enables the means of action to be concentrated so that medical equipment may be provided for each area, and used in common by both sickness insurance and invalidity insurance. These considerations predominate in States which, like Bulgaria, Czechoslovakia, Soviet Russia, and the Serb-Croat-Slovene Kingdom, have aimed at co-ordinating the whole of their insurance institutions.

Whatever has been the basis of organisation adopted, the management of insurance is always entrusted either to a state service or to autonomous institutions administered by insured persons alone, by insured persons and employers, or by insured persons, employers, and representatives of the public authorities.

State management is rare : it exists only in Bulgaria, and to some extent in Japan (insurance offices). Even in these two countries state management may perhaps be regarded as only a temporary feature, intended to prepare the way for management by the parties concerned when the development of trade associations of workers and employers and the progress in the social education of the mass of the population shall have made it possible for them to assume this task.

Autonomous management by the parties concerned is the plan which has received almost universal favour ; it seems to fulfil the conditions required for efficiency and to respond to the wishes of insured persons and employers. The system of autonomous institutions working under the supervision of the state is one which makes it possible at the same time to apply uniform legal provisions and to allow the free play of initiative in the adaptation of the activities of institutions to special local needs.

Participation in management is, in the eyes of employers, and, even more, of insured persons, a necessary corollary to the payment of the contributions imposed upon them by law. It interests insured persons in the good management of insurance, increases their feeling of responsibility, enables abuses to be prevented by

mutual supervision, gives to workers a sense of sharing in a collective effort, and in this capacity serves as a valuable agent for the education of the masses of the population in democracy.

To decide what share of influence shall be given to each party is no easy task, and the plan adopted varies according to the type of fund and from country to country. Friendly societies set up by the workers themselves are of course managed exclusively by their members. In territorial funds, and even in trade funds, insured persons are generally more strongly represented than employers. The number of seats attributed to them, hardly ever less than half, is frequently as much as two-thirds of the total number, and sometimes even exceeds this proportion. A study of the movement of recent legislation reveals a well-marked tendency to increase the influence of insured persons in the management of insurance funds.

It may be concluded that the growing predominance of autonomous territorial funds administered by the parties concerned, and the attribution of an increasingly important share in the administration to the insured persons, are two of the most salient features in the evolution of the institutions of compulsory sickness insurance.

Conclusion

From this survey of tendencies, in spite of its deficiencies and brevity, it seems possible to reach the following conclusion. Sickness insurance is endeavouring to fulfil ever more completely its task of protecting the health of the working-class family and maintaining the workers' capacity to produce, by widening the circle of insured persons, perfecting the system of benefits which perform the threefold function of relief, cure, and prevention, concentrating the means of action, and systematically organising autonomous institutions under the control of the parties concerned.

Thus compulsory sickness insurance, as creator of security, health, well-being, and productive capacity, and as an instrument of education, is an element both important and necessary in the proper economic and social organisation of communities.

The Place of Prevention in Social Insurance

by

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The last number of the Review *contained an article by Professor Loriga on the place of sickness insurance in the national health system*[1]. *The opportunity has been welcomed of following this up by a general survey, by Mr. Andreas Grieser, based on the German system, of the importance of preventive measures in the various branches of social insurance.*

NATIONAL economy and social insurance are interdependent. Social insurance arises out of the economic and social conditions of the working classes; it is the natural outcome of a certain economic and social order. Inversely, anyone desiring to draw up an economic balance sheet for a country with a social insurance system must not overlook the benefits of insurance. The cost of social insurance to the national economy is refunded indirectly by the improvement in public health, and by the increase in the working capacity and purchasing power of the workers. Were it possible to estimate all the advantages of social insurance, especially its value in connection with curing and preventing sickness, it would in all likelihood be seen that the debit and credit accounts between it and the national economy were about equal; a credit balance might even be found to lie with insurance.

That this fact is not always recognised, or is at least not appreciated at its real value, is due largely to the one-sided manner in which the whole question is too frequently considered. A certain number of employers, regarding the question from an economic rather than a social standpoint, fail to see in insurance anything but a burden to production; numbers of insured persons, on the other hand, taking the social rather than the economic standpoint,

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[1] *International Labour Review*, Vol. XV, No. 5, May 1927, pp. 651-668.

prefer large cash benefits to benefits in kind and preventive measures. The economist and the hygienist, however, consider the question from quite another angle. Including both economic requirements and social needs in his study of the question, the economist compares them and endeavours to establish their real relative importance; his point of view is thus both economic and social. Such also is the mental process of the expert in social hygiene who appraises the worth of benefits according to their value for the public health; who prefers prevention to cure and protection to compensation; who, in a word, practises " human economy " in the best sense of the term. To these opinions must be added those of the moralist, for whom social insurance is not merely a scheme to safeguard the physical and economic welfare of the worker but also a means to develop the worker's consciousness of the dignity of the human race and his own personality. In his eyes social insurance is not merely the product of its age, but a separate living entity, endowed with innate strength, and as such is one of the world's moral forces.

Briefly, the economist considers the temporary circumstances under which social insurance is employed and acts; the hygienist looks to its ultimate aim; and the moralist to its underlying principles.

German social legislation insures workers and employees against illness and accidents, incapacity to work and invalidity, childbirth and death. This legislation has grown out of economic and social realities. In addition to cash benefits such as sickness and accident compensation, invalidity pensions, payments in case of death, and survivors' pensions, it provides for the supply of medical aid, hospital treatment, drugs, and medical and surgical appliances.

Further, the law authorises insurance carriers to take steps for the prevention of sickness and invalidity and the improvement of the health conditions of the insured population; in accident insurance prevention is even made a legal obligation. Social insurance presupposes the prosperity of industry, but it is itself an essential condition for the continuance of the productive power of industry and of the population as a whole.

I

Sickness insurance in Germany covers 20 million workers and employees, or nearly one-third of the total population and nearly

two-thirds of the working population. The majority of the sickness funds have voluntarily decided to extend benefits in kind to the members of the insured person's family, thus increasing the number of beneficiaries by 14 to 15 million.

Experience has shown that for 100 insured persons there are on an average every year from 45 to 50 cases of sickness resulting in incapacity to work lasting on an average 24 days. This means that every worker may expect to be ill once in two years and to lose his earning capacity for 24 days. Past figures also show that there is a yearly average of 6 deaths per 1,000 insured persons. Neither of these sets of figures take into account members of the insured person's family.

The sickness funds grant benefits for a period of 26 weeks, but they may prolong the period up to one year by the insertion of special provisions in their rules. The benefits include pecuniary sickness benefit — generally equivalent to half the wage — and medical aid. Medical aid includes medical attendance and the supply of drugs, treatment in a hospital or other institution or in the patient's home according to circumstances, special diet, and the supply within specified limits of appliances and apparatus such as spectacles, trusses, and artificial teeth, intended to restore or preserve the individual's capacity for work, and of appliances to prevent disfigurement or deformity, such as crutches, prosthetic appliances, artificial limbs, etc.

During 1924 the amount paid out by the funds on sickness benefit was 32 per cent. of the total expenditure, on medical treatment 21 per cent., hospital treatment 13 per cent., drugs and medical and surgical appliances 11 per cent., and administrative expenses 7 per cent.

When these figures are compared with those of the past it becomes evident that more and more importance is being attached by the insurance institutions to the supply of complete benefits in kind of a preventive character. Whereas the expenditure on sickness benefit has only been tripled since 1885, that for medical treatment has multiplied sevenfold and that for hospital treatment sixfold during the same period.

Even if members of the insured person's family, who do not receive any cash allowances, are left out of account, benefits in kind are seen to have increased more rapidly than cash benefits.

Pecuniary sickness benefit is by its very nature a compensation

for loss of wages, while medical aid, on account of its immediate aim, is an attempt to restore the individual's capacity for work. Both, however, indirectly serve the purposes of prevention. The former frees the individual from anxiety about his maintenance and so increases his force of resistance ; while it is only through sickness insurance that the working classes can obtain the latter at the right time and to the necessary extent. Prompt and thorough treatment prevents complications and undoubtedly acts in many illnesses as a preventive measure. It has been said by a hygienist that " a man completely cured is better than a healthy man ".

The German sickness funds also supply the services of specialists and adopt the most modern curative methods to ensure a lasting cure.

Premature return to work may easily endanger the organism enfeebled by sickness. The aim of assistance to convalescents is to avoid these dangers. The insurance funds have founded convalescent homes for their members in many districts, including some watering-places. During 1925 this form of assistance cost them nearly 5 million marks.

The law empowers the sickness funds to expend money and take suitable measures to prevent sickness, either in individual cases, or generally for the whole of the insured population. This is a great step forward ; it enables the sickness funds to take active measures against infectious diseases, in particular tuberculosis and venereal disease. The funds also take direct and indirect action to set up centres for the treatment of tuberculosis and venereal disease to found curative establishments in the woods, and to build anti-tuberculosis sanatoria. These activities have been encouraged by legislative and administrative measures for many years past.

II

In Germany the centre of gravity of preventive measures is to be found in invalidity and employees' insurance. At bottom invalidity insurance is really only a logical continuation of sickness insurance. On the expiration of the 26-week period the pecuniary sickness benefit is converted into an invalidity pension equal, on an average, to half the sickness benefit.

Invalidity insurance covers 18,000, 000 and employees' insurance

2,400,000 persons; 10 to 11 per cent. of insured persons become entitled to invalidity benefit.

The law does not give any right to curative treatment; but carriers of both invalidity and employees' insurance may grant curative treatment to prevent or cure invalidity either threatened or actually in being. They may also contribute from their funds towards general measures for the prevention of premature invalidity and for the improvement of the health conditions of the insured population. Although simple in appearance and conceived in general terms, these provisions are of great importance. From this insignificant seed there has grown a tree bearing valuable fruit, as may be seen from the figures quoted below.

During 1925 the invalidity insurance institutions provided continuous or non-continuous curative treatment in 210,000 cases (126,000 men and 84,000 women). The cost of this treatment was 42 million marks. In 1926 the employees' insurance institutions spent 16 million marks on similar treatment. When it is remembered that during 1900 and 1913 the corresponding sums spent by the invalidity insurance institutions were respectively 15 million and 34 million marks, the numbers of beneficiaries being 27,000 and 154,000, the progress made in the provision of preventive measures becomes obvious.

Under invalidity insurance, continuous medical treatment is taken to mean treatment and maintenance in an institution, especially at a health resort, or prolonged medical treatment in the home of the sick person. Non-continuous treatment includes occasional medical treatment, and the supply of artificial teeth and limbs, drugs, and medical and surgical appliances.

Continuous curative treatment is granted principally to persons suffering from tuberculosis or venereal disease. Tuberculosis is still very prevalent among the insured population; it causes serious losses through incapacity to work and death, while it is propagated indefinitely by infection and heredity. Similar ravages are caused by venereal disease. During 1925 curative treatment was given to 47,000 persons (30,000 men and 17,000 women) affected by tuberculosis of the throat and lungs; the cost was 22 million marks. The number of persons suffering from venereal disease who received continuous treatment was 11,000 (8,000 men and 3,000 women); the cost was about a million marks.

As a rule continuous treatment for tuberculosis lasts 70 days and costs 470 marks, or an average of 6.70 marks a day. Continuous treatment for venereal disease lasts 40 days, that for tuber-

culosis of the bones and joints 100 days, and that for lupus up to six months.

The insurance institutions have their own curative establishments. At the end of 1913 they owned 84 establishments with 9,000 beds; by the end of 1925 the numbers had increased to 98 establishments and 13,000 beds. During 1925 the upkeep of these establishments cost 22,500,000 marks. In addition, the general preventive measures taken by the invalidity insurance institutions cost 7 million marks in 1925, as against 1,400,000 marks in 1913 and 250,000 marks in 1905. In general these measures include participation in the work of information and consultation offices, treatment centres for tuberculosis and venereal disease, and curative and convalescent institutions, and in all action against drunkenness and infectious diseases.

Preventive aid is one of the finest fruits of invalidity and employees' insurance. During a period of nine years 40 million marks have been granted by the Reich for the development of such measures, both extensively and intensively.

III

The German accident insurance system, too, provides important benefits in kind in addition to the usual pecuniary benefits. It covers 11 million industrial workers and 14 to 15 million agricultural workers and employers.

During 1925 there were 60 accidents per 1,000 insured persons in industry, 1 in 10 of these accidents resulting in the loss or reduction of the earning capacity of the victim.

Benefits in kind include first aid, medical treatment and attendance, and the vocational re-education of the disabled. The law lays particular stress on the employer's obligation to supervise his undertaking and to improve safety measures. To a certain extent it attaches even more importance to prevention and to the re-establishment of the worker's earning capacity than to cash benefits. The better the protection of labour and the more thorough the supervision of the undertaking, the smaller will be the number of accidents.

Preventive measures include oral, written, and pictorial instruction of insured workers and of employers concerning methods of preventing accidents and their importance, the encouragement of

teaching on safety in the schools, the organisation of courses for foremen, etc. Insurance carriers are required to take all measures for the prevention of accidents and the provision of first aid, so far as is possible in view of technical and medical progress and the solvency of the industry.

IV

" There is nothing which is not capable of improvement. "

In future the campaign against infectious diseases must be carried on by social insurance with even more vigour than in the past. In tuberculosis, for instance, not only the sick person but also the danger of infection must be considered ; thought must be given to the members of his family, to his environment, and to his fellow workers who may be injured by him. It is therefore essential to provide curative treatment in good time, to lessen the risk of infection, and to increase the share of the insurance institutions in the general work of social hygiene.

The rational organisation of preventive measures in the undertaking calls for the foundation and the activities of some form of joint organisation to ensure collaboration between the various insurance carriers, and especially to regulate the relations between sickness funds, invalidity insurance institutions, and doctors. Joint organisations are also necessary to ensure contact between insurance carriers on the one hand and public health authorities and private welfare organisations on the other. The right to membership of these organisations will entail the obligation to accept freely the conditions they impose. By the Act of 28 July 1925 the Federal Government was authorised to lay down guiding principles for the organisation of preventive and curative treatment and of joint organisations of the kind suggested above. These principles will be decided upon in the course of the summer of 1927. The aims of the joint organisations will be identical with those of the Joint International Committee of Experts for the Study of the Prevention of Sickness, which was recently formed in Geneva by the Health Committee of the League of Nations and by the Governing Body of the International Labour Office, and which is composed of public health and social insurance experts.

" Capital invested in the preventive work of social insurance ", said Mr. Lloyd George, " gives large dividends to the insured and

to the population as a whole." And in the words of Mr. Albert Schäffle: "The supreme aim of the statesman is not the enrichment or satisfaction of a few but the greatest possible development of the physical, moral, and economic forces of the whole population; it is only thus that a nation can maintain its place in the struggle for existence."

The Administration of Labour Law in Germany : II

by

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This article, as explained in the introduction to the first part[1], *was prepared before the passing of the Labour Courts Act on 23 December 1926. The only point in which the Act differs from the account of the Bill given below is that in disputes concerning wages, unauthorised modes of action in labour disputes, or questions of freedom of association, the Chambers of the Labour Courts and District Labour Courts are to have four assessors, two employers and two workers or employees, instead of one of each, as in all other cases. The other changes made by the Reichstag in the Bill affected points of no general importance which are not referred to in the account below. The article has therefore been left in the form in which it left the author's hands, as, with the exception noted above, it adequately describes the system which is to be put in force on 1 July 1927, or such later date as may be rendered necessary by the difficulties of completing the institution of the Courts in time. The last section of the article (adjustment of disputes) is not affected by the fact of the passing of the Act.*

The Labour Courts

For some considerable time efforts had been made in Germany to set up a general and uniform system of courts with jurisdiction in labour matters, to take the place of the existing special courts. The reasons for this are easily understood. As will have been seen from the earlier part of this article, the settlement of disputes concerning labour matters is at present entrusted to a multiplicity of different tribunals with varying competences, a complicated state of affairs which makes it difficult for claimants to secure legal redress for their claims. But the chief objection to the existing system was that it resulted in unjustifiable inequalities in the treatment of persons and disputes which should essentially have been treated alike. Agricultural workers, domestic servants, highly-paid technical and commercial employees, all employees

[1] *International Labour Review*, Vol. XV, No. 5, May 1927, pp. 681–708.

who are neither technical nor commercial, and workers and employees of public bodies have hitherto had to bring civil disputes arising out of their contract of service or employment before the ordinary courts. This rule is subject to only a few exceptions in special cases, such as disputes relating to dismissals under the Works Councils Act. For all other disputes the workers in question are deprived of the advantages the procedure in a labour court still has over that of an ordinary court, in spite of the recent improvements in the regulation for the latter. This holds also for a number of disputes which are outside the material competence of the special courts, such as disputes arising out of collective agreements, and also for all persons and disputes in districts for which no special court exists. Lastly, stress has repeatedly been laid on the need for unifying the practice of the courts in labour cases, and the creation of a single Supreme Court to deal with such cases has been held to be an absolute necessity for the enforcement and development of a uniform and comprehensive system of labour legislation, such as is at present under consideration.

Since 1920 various drafts for a Labour Courts Act had been prepared, partly by the Committee on Labour Legislation already mentioned[1], partly in the Federal Ministry of Labour; but none of them reached the stage of discussion by Parliament. The chief divergence of opinion in this preparatory work and the public discussions on it was over the relationship to be established between the labour courts and the ordinary courts. In July 1925 the Federal Government submitted a new draft to the legislative bodies for their consideration. This draft adopted a middle position on the disputed question; on other points it was based as closely as possible on the existing system of Industrial and Commercial Courts, while taking account of all previous expert suggestions and efforts towards extending and unifying the competence of the labour courts, and of the needs of to-day in the light of past experience. The draft was published in the *Reichsarbeitsblatt*, 1925, No. 28, p. 309. After it had been discussed in the Reichsrat and the Provisional Federal Economic Council, the Federal Government, on 11 May 1926, submitted to the Reichstag a new draft, slightly modified in accordance with the preliminary discussions, which was again published on 19 May as a document of the Reichstag[2].

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[1] *Ibid.*, p. 687.

[2] Drucksache Nr. 2065 des Reichstags, III, 1924/26.

The Bill provides for the institution of Labour Courts (*Arbeitsgerichte*), District Labour Courts (*Landesarbeitsgerichte*), and a Federal Labour Court (*Reichsarbeitsgericht*). The Labour Courts, which have to hear labour disputes as courts of first instance, are autonomous courts completely independent of the ordinary courts of each State. They are set up by the judicial authorities of each State, in agreement with the highest administrative authority of the same State for social questions. A similar arrangement holds for the administration and control of the Labour Courts and District Labour Courts and for the appointment of the chairmen and vice-chairmen of these Courts.

The area covered by a Labour Court is ordinarily that of an Official Court. Exceptionally, a Labour Court may be set up for a larger or smaller area, especially for one forming an economic unit.

The Labour Court, like the Industrial and Commercial Courts, consists of the necessary number of chairmen, vice-chairmen, and assessors, the last named being employers and workers in equal numbers. It is divided into Chambers by the authorities which set it up. There are separate Chambers for workers and employees. When necessary, special Chambers may be set up to deal with disputes in specified occupations and industries and for specified groups of workers and employees. A Chamber of the Labour Court sits as a bench of three — a chairman (or vice-chairman), and two assessors, one employer and one worker.

During their period of office the chairmen and vice-chairmen have the same rights and duties as judicial officers of the State concerned. They must in general be " ordinary judges ". Exceptionally, other persons may be appointed, but only if they have the qualifications necessary for the office of judge. This applies to ex-judges, public prosecutors, barristers, and also administrative officials of States and communes, in so far as they are qualified for the office of judge, and not merely for higher administrative posts. The appointment of such persons is subject to certain further conditions : their economic position must be such that they cannot be considered either employers or employed, and their appointment must not involve any considerable extra expense. The Bill further provides that in general — and therefore also for the ordinary judges — only persons with knowledge and experience of social questions and labour law shall be appointed. Only one group of persons is excluded from the rule imposing possession of the qualifications for a judge, namely, chairmen of Industrial and

Commercial Courts who at the date of the promulgation of the Labour Courts Act have held the office of chairman as their principal function for at least two years. They are considered fully qualified for the post of chairman of a Labour Court, and on their request must be transferred to this new office for life. The chairmen and vice-chairmen are appointed for at least one and at most nine years; re-appointment is allowed. After holding the office as their principal function for at least three years they may be appointed for life.

The assessors of the Labour Court are not elected by the members of the class they represent but are appointed for three years by the higher administrative authority of the State in agreement with the president of the competent district council. The employers' and workers' only share in the choice of these assessors is that their trade associations within the district of the Court have to submit lists of candidates, from which the assessors are chosen by the authorities in suitable proportions. For workers and employees of the Reich, the States, communes, associations of communes, and other public bodies the lists are submitted by the competent administration.

The qualifications for the office of assessor are as follows. Candidates must be of German nationality and at least 25 years old. They must have worked as either employer or employed in the district of the Court for at least a year. There are the same disqualifications as for the Industrial and Commercial Courts; in addition, officials and employees of a Labour Court authority are ineligible for appointment. Women are subject only to the same conditions as men.

The District Labour Courts are attached to the District Courts and the Federal Labour Court to the Federal Court. The Chambers of the District Labour Courts are in general similar to the Civil Chambers of the District Courts, and the Senates of the Federal Labour Court to the Civil Senates of the Federal Court. The chairmen and vice-chairmen of the District Labour Courts are chosen from the directors or permanent members of the District Courts, or, if there is an Upper District Court at the seat of the District Labour Court, from the judges of the Upper District Court; they are appointed for their period of office at the District or Upper District Court.

Each Chamber consists of a chairman or vice-chairman, and two assessors, one employer and one worker or employee. The assessors must be at least 30 years old, and must already have

acquired considerable experience by having acted as assessor under a Labour Court authority for at least three years. In other respects — especially as regards their appointment, position, or removal from office — the same regulations hold for them as for the assessors of the Labour Courts.

Each Senate of the Federal Labour Court consists of a chairman or vice-chairman, two assessors who are judges (*richterliche Beisitzer*), and two assessors who are not judges (*nichtrichterliche Beisitzer*), one employer and one worker or employee. The chairman must be president of a Senate of the Federal Court; the vice-chairman must be either president of a Senate of the Federal Court or a judge of the Federal Court. The Bill also prescribes that only judges with special knowledge and experience of social questions and labour law shall be eligible for appointment to either the District Labour Courts or the Federal Labour Court. Assessors of the Federal Labour Court who are not judges must be at least 35 years old, and have worked in Germany as either employer or employed for some considerable time. They are appointed by the Federal Minister of Justice, from lists submitted by the central organisations of the economic associations of employers and employed, and by the Reich, the States, communes, etc., due proportion being kept between the various lists. These assessors can only be removed from their office by the president of the Federal Court. In all other respects the same regulations hold for them as for the assessors of the Labour Courts.

In order to give the lay element as much influence as possible in judicial decisions on questions of labour law, it is provided that when the Federal Court takes decisions on such questions in a joint sitting of all the Civil Senates or in plenary session, one employers' assessor and one workers' assessor from each Senate of the Federal Labour Court shall take part in its decisions.

The term " employed persons " in the sense of the Labour Courts Act covers workers, employees, apprentices, home workers, and similar persons. It does not include legal representatives of legal persons or of combinations of persons under public or private law, public officials, or members of the army or navy.

The competence of the Labour Courts extends, to the exclusion of that of the ordinary courts, and regardless of the amount in dispute, primarily and essentially to all civil disputes between employers and employed arising out of an individual contract of employment or apprenticeship, or out of negotiations over the conclusion of such a contract. The only exceptions are, as regards

persons, disputes concerning the members of a ship's crew, and as regards subject-matter, those concerning inventions of employed persons. The Labour Courts are also competent in civil disputes between trade associations of employers or employed and their members over the contract of association, except disputes over the dissolution of these associations, and in civil disputes between employed persons arising out of work performed in common. In addition, the Bill assigns the following disputes to the Labour Courts : civil disputes arising out of a collective agreement, either between the parties to the agreement or between these parties and a third party, whether over the fulfilment of contractual obligations, or over compensation for the consequences of their non-fulfilment ; civil disputes between parties capable of concluding agreements or between these and third parties over illegal acts when these are committed in connection with a labour dispute or with questions of freedom of association. The competence of the Labour Courts also extends to the cases specified in the Works Councils Act, whose settlement the Conciliation Order of 30 October 1923 entrusted to the Provisional Labour Courts[1]. A further extension of the competence of the new Courts, as compared with the Industrial and Commercial Courts, is that they can hear complaints of third parties against employers or employed persons, or *vice-versa*, when the subject of the complaint is in legal or direct economic connection with a civil action pending or simultaneously brought before a Labour Court and within the competence of this Court.

The procedure laid down in the Bill for civil disputes before the Labour Courts is essentially the same as that for the present Industrial Courts. It is also very similar to the Official Court procedure, but attaches even more importance than the latter to the direct oral hearing of the parties, and is so arranged that in case of failure to reach an amicable settlement a decision can be given after a single hearing.

The Bill contains no provision for the " arbitration procedure " and " amicable procedure " allowed in the Official Courts. The former would have been superfluous, because its special aims of freeing the Court from strict rules of procedure and ensuring the collaboration of lay experts in the decision are secured directly by the whole Labour Court procedure. As regards the latter, the Bill provides for a special procedure on similar lines and prescribes its application in every dispute before the formal hearing.

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[1] Cf. *International Labour Review*, Vol. XV, No. 5, May 1927, p. 703.

As regards the employment of counsel, the Bill retains the rule at present applied in the Industrial and Commercial Courts, that in principle the parties may not be represented or advised by lawyers or other professional legal representatives. The Government held to this rule, although the Reichsrat had recommended that the employment of counsel should be allowed in civil disputes where the amount in dispute exceeds 300 marks and in the cases specified in the Works Councils Act. On the contrary, and in accordance with the proposal of the Reichsrat, the Bill provides that before the District and Federal Labour Courts the parties must be represented by lawyers, as it is essentially points of law which come before these Courts for examination and decision. Before the District Labour Courts (but not the Federal Labour Court), however, statutory representatives of economic associations of employers or employed, and employees of these associations holding a power of attorney, are allowed to represent a party to the dispute instead of a lawyer, if the party in question is either the association itself or one of its members.

Appeals from decisions of the Labour Courts will be to the District Labour Courts when the amount originally in dispute (not the amount appealed against) exceeds 300 marks, or when the Labour Court authorises the appeal on account of the fundamental importance of the matter in dispute. In civil disputes within the competence of the Labour Courts as courts of first instance, except disputes concerning dismissals under sections 86 and 87 of the Works Councils Act (an exception opposed by the *Reichsrat*), decisions given by the District Labour Courts on appeal may be submitted to the Federal Labour Court for revision, if the amount originally in dispute (here too this sum, and not the amount appealed against, is the criterion) exceeds the sum fixed as the limit for revision in ordinary civil cases, or when the District Labour Court authorises an application for revision on account of the fundamental importance of the matter in dispute. In the former case, with the consent of the other party, or if the Federal Minister of Labour considers an immediate settlement of the dispute by the Federal Labour Court necessary in the general interest, the initial decision can be carried at once to the Federal Labour Court for revision without passing through the appeal procedure (*Sprungrevision*).

Appeals and applications for revision must be lodged within a fortnight; the same period is allowed for submitting the reasons in support of the appeal or application for revision. Appeals may be on points either of fact or of law. But as the essential aim of

the appeal procedure is to control the legal validity of the decisions of the lower Courts, the production of new facts is rendered very difficult. Defects of procedure are not a ground for appeal. Applications for revision can be made only on the ground that the decision of the Court of Appeal ignored or misinterpreted a provision of the law or a clause of a collective agreement regulating individual contracts of employment. Complaints as to defects of procedure in the lower Courts are not allowed as a ground for revision.

For the second group of cases under the Works Councils Act which are within the competence of the Labour Courts, the Bill prescribes a special procedure called the " resolution procedure " (*Beschlussverfahren*). This is in accordance with the provisions of the Conciliation Order of 30 October 1923 and the Order of 10 December 1923 for its application; its characteristics are simplicity and speed. It consists of a written, or if necessary oral, exposition of the case, followed by a decision of one of the Chambers of the Labour Court in plenary session in the form of a resolution. A resolution of this kind can be appealed against, but only on legal grounds. Appeals are heard ordinarily by the District Labour Courts, and only in exceptional cases by the Federal Labour Court.

The costs falling on the parties are determined in the Bill on the same principles as those at present in force for the Industrial and Commercial Courts, except that the upper limit of fees is higher. The procedure in the special courts for labour matters will thus in future, as in the past, be less costly than that in the ordinary courts.

The Bill contains a special chapter dealing with the possibility that the parties may agree to exclude the Labour Courts wholly or partially from the settlement of the dispute, and to replace them by institutions set up by agreement. This exclusion is effected by an " arbitration agreement ", which the parties can conclude either for all disputes within the competence of the Labour Courts or for a particular case.

A so-called " conciliation agreement " (*Gütevertrag*) transfers to an institution set up by agreement the " amicable procedure " which, as mentioned above, must always precede the formal hearing of the case. The effect of an " agreement for expert arbitral opinion " (*Schiedsgutachtenvertrag*) is that certain matters of fact that are of importance for the decision on the dispute are withdrawn from examination by the Labour Courts and settled by submission to experts chosen by agreement, whose arbitration award is binding on the Courts.

In conformity with the special nature of disputes in labour matters, the arbitration procedure is planned on independent lines and without reference to the rules for similar cases laid down in the Code of Civil Procedure. As concerns the Arbitration Courts themselves, the only stipulation is that they must observe the principle of joint representation of employers and employed, and for their procedure rigorous rules are laid down only for a few fundamental points. Everything else is to be settled by the arbitration agreement — i.e. the agreement between the parties which is the basis of the whole system.

When the Labour Courts Act comes into force the Industrial Courts, the Mining Industrial Courts, the Commercial Courts, the Labour Court Chambers of the Conciliation Committees, the Guild Arbitration Courts, and the Guilds (these last, however, only as concerns their power to decide labour disputes) will cease to exist, and the laws and orders regulating their activities will be abrogated.

The Adjustment of Disputes

In Germany, as elsewhere, the system of conciliation or adjustment of disputes (*Schlichtung*) owes its origin primarily to the need of having machinery ready to intervene in specific cases for the prevention or settlement of labour disputes. When such disputes are threatened or have actually broken out — e.g. in the form of a strike — then ordinarily, unless only questions of solidarity, power, or politics are involved, there will be specific demands put forward which aim either at fixing new conditions of work or at removing or modifying existing conditions. The task of conciliation is to bring about negotiations between the parties on the points in dispute, either before some impartial body or not, and if possible to arrive at an agreement between them. If an impartial body exists for this purpose, then in case of failure to agree it is ordinarily called upon to declare, in the form of an arbitration award, the solution which appears just from an impartial point of view. The methods of bringing about negotiation and the effects of an arbitration award may vary considerably ; in Germany they have varied very much at different times.

Thus the disputes to be dealt with by the conciliation machinery are not claims arising out of *existing* individual or collective contracts of employment with a view to enforcing agreements already concluded or claiming compensation for their non-obser-

vance. Disputes of this type call for judicial settlement, for which purpose, as we have seen, a system of special courts has been set up in Germany and is in course of further development. Conciliation is concerned only with *future* labour conditions. A further characteristic is that it has to deal only with disputes which, on the workers' side, affect a whole group of persons. This may consist of all the workers or employees or at least a part or a group of the staff of an undertaking or of several undertakings or of a whole branch of industry, or one or more trade associations of workers or employees. The disputes in question are for this reason termed " collective disputes " ; in opposition to this, disputes arising out of an individual contract of employment or collective agreement which are within the competence of the courts are termed " individual disputes ".

It follows that conciliation is not a method of enforcing existing labour legislation. Strictly speaking, therefore, it is outside the scope of this article. At the same time, it seems indispensable to give a short account of its development and present condition in Germany. For the essential nature of the machinery for enforcing labour legislation is the more clearly shown by the contrast between the two institutions ; the sharp demarcation of the respective spheres of conciliation and the judicial settlement of labour disputes is in fact one of the definite aims of the Labour Courts Bill. Further, the conciliation system is of considerable importance for certain branches of labour legislation, in particular for the law on collective agreements, freedom of association (right of coalition), trade associations, and labour representation ; and inversely, the legal provisions on these subjects play a considerable part in the application of conciliation. And there is the further consideration that conciliation in Germany has developed into a real auxiliary source of labour law, from the point of view of collective agreements, if not of legislation, and itself needs enforcement by administrative measures, or in case of disputes by judicial means. Everything considered, therefore, a survey of the official and private institutions in Germany which deal with labour law, their methods of working and the regulations governing their work, their special aims and the results achieved — and such a survey is after all the object of this article — would be incomplete if no mention were made of conciliation. In view of the main subject of the article, however, and of the limited space available, only the most important points in its development and present form can be touched on here.

For a long time there existed in Germany only private institutions set up by employers and employed for the peaceful settlement of collective disputes, such as the wages offices (*Tariftämter*), wages arbitration courts (*Tarifschiedsgerichte*), etc. It was not until the last quarter of the nineteenth century that continued serious disputes brought it home to wider circles of the community that it was urgently necessary, in the interests of the nation and not only of the parties to the dispute, to set up public institutions to prevent strikes and lockouts or to settle them quickly. An official institution of this kind was for the first time called into being by the Industrial Courts Act of 29 July 1890. This Act assigned to the Industrial Courts, in addition to their judicial functions, the task of acting as " conciliation offices " for " disputes between employers and employed arising out of the conditions for the maintenance or resumption of the contract of employment ". There was no compulsion to apply to these conciliation offices, which were authorised to intervene only when invited to do so by both parties. If only one party applied to them, it was the chairman's duty to try to induce the other party to join in the application. If neither party took any such steps, it was his further duty, in disputes within the sphere of the conciliation procedure, to try to bring about joint application by both parties.

All the parties to a dispute were under obligation to appear when summoned by the chairman; but the compulsion was very mild, as the penalty for non-appearance was a fine of not more than 100 marks, and there was no compulsion at all to take part in the negotiations. After a full statement of the case the office made an attempt at conciliation. If this succeeded, the resulting agreement was drawn up in writing, signed by the parties to the negotiations, and published. If no agreement was reached, then ordinarily an arbitration award had to be pronounced on the matter in dispute. This award had only moral and not legal force, and the parties were free to accept it or reject it, either explicitly or tacitly. The text of the award was published with the explanations given by the parties. It was also the chairman's duty to make known the cases in which neither an agreement nor an arbitration award was reached. The aim of this was to bring pressure to bear on the parties to induce them to accept the arbitration award; considerable success was in fact achieved in this direction.

Later on the Commercial Courts Act of 6 July 1904 adopted the provisions of the Industrial Courts Act on the conciliation offices. In 1897 an Act amending the Industrial Code made it possible for

masters and their journeymen belonging to a guild (*Innung*) to set up special conciliation offices belonging to the guilds — a provision frequently taken advantage of. Subsequently special arbitration offices were set up for some individual labour disputes of special importance for the community (e.g. widespread strikes of building workers), with the collaboration of the Federal or State authorities. Such action became more and more frequent, but the activity of these bodies and the effects of their arbitration awards were dependent solely on the agreement of the parties to the dispute. Repeated attempts to set the conciliation system on a broader legal basis by the creation of labour chambers did not give the desired result.

It was to the National Auxiliary Service Act (*Hilfsdienstgesetz*) of 5 December 1916 that an important advance was due in the process of creating permanent official conciliation machinery. It is true that the institutions set up under this Act were intended to be only for the duration of the war, but they lasted long afterwards, though in a partially modified form. The Act provided for the creation of Committees, having a military character as regards their chairman and the district covered, but including assessors chosen from the ranks of employers and employed respectively. The primary tasks of these Committees were closely correlated with the real aim of the Act, which was to ensure the best use of all available labour in Germany. But they were at the same time given the task of adjusting disputes on " wages or other conditions of labour ", if no agreement could be reached between the workers or employees concerned, or the workers' or employees' committees representing them, and the employer.

The procedure of the Conciliation Committees was based on the same principles as the corresponding provisions of the Industrial Courts Act. The Auxiliary Service Act, however, contained the following important innovations, which marked a notable advance on the existing system : (1) conciliation procedure was for the first time applied to disputes between employers and employed persons in agricultural undertakings ; (2) the compulsion to appear was strengthened by the provision that an arbitration award was to be pronounced even if one of the parties did not appear — a much more effective penalty than the former comparatively small fine ; (3) strong compulsion to take part in the negotiations was applied by the provision that an award would be pronounced even if one of the parties appeared but refused to negotiate. The effect of the last two provisions was that the ap-

plication for conciliation need now be made by only one party.

The fear felt after the war and the revolution that economic conditions in Germany — already sufficiently serious — might be aggravated by widespread labour disputes, hastened the adoption of legislative measures, which in particular tended to develop the conciliation system, as well as the needs of the moment allowed. Among the first of these was the Order of 23 December 1918 (R. G. Bl., p. 1456) of the Council of the People's Commissioners on collective agreements, workers' and employees' committees, and the adjustment of labour disputes. This Order maintained to some extent the Conciliation Committees set up under the Auxiliary Service Act, which had not been abolished on the abrogation of this Act. The seat and district of the Committees remained the same, and their permanent assessors remained in office ; but their military character disappeared, and the chairman was no longer appointed by the military authorities but was chosen by the permanent representatives of employers and employed on each of the old Committees, who could choose either one of themselves or an impartial outsider. As before, the Committees consisted of one non-permanent and two permanent representatives each of employers and employed ; women were now also eligible for appointment. The possibility of setting these Committees in action was widened by the fact that the creation of workers' and employees' committees was made obligatory in all public and private undertakings, administrations, and offices of every kind with at least 20 workers or employees ; these committees were empowered not only to collaborate in the settlement of wages and other conditions of work, but also, in case of disputes on these points with the employer, if no agreement could be reached, to appeal to the Conciliation Committee or some other institution for conciliation or adjustment. Lastly, the Federal Minister of Labour was empowered to deal with important disputes of the specified kind, either by himself acting as conciliator, or by instructing other institutions to act. This last provision might have served as a basis for the constitution of a federal conciliation office — an institution often demanded but not yet set up. Later on the Works Councils Act of 4 February 1920 replaced the workers' and employees' committees by councils of workers and employees and works councils with similar functions in this respect. The Order of 23 December 1918, like the Auxiliary Service Act, gave the conciliation offices of the Industrial and Commercial Courts, etc. priority over the Conciliation Committees when the parties applied

to them; the private wages offices, etc. had the same priority.

The conciliation procedure laid down in this Order was modelled on that for the conciliation offices of the Industrial Courts. The methods of enforcing appearance and negotiation introduced by the Auxiliary Service Act were however maintained, and the Committees were authorised to issue an arbitration award even if one of the parties refused to appear or to take part in the negotiations. The award — whether preceded or not by oral proceedings — was regarded as a proposal by the Committee for a contract between the parties to the dispute. If the parties accepted it, it gave rise to a formal agreement containing the same provisions as the award. This might be a collective agreement (*Tarifvertrag*) in the sense of the first section of the Order of 23 December 1918.

The arbitration award as such was never executory, even if both parties accepted it. Nor was there any provision in the Order of 23 December 1918 for enforcing its acceptance by the parties. But in the difficult circumstances of the early days after the war it soon appeared that no results would be reached without some degree of compulsion. A first step was taken in certain disputes relating to the employment of ex-service men, which for reasons of expediency were placed within the competence of the Conciliation Committees instead of the courts, although they were really "individual disputes". For these the Demobilisation Commissioner was empowered to declare the award of a Conciliation Committee binding if both parties did not voluntarily accept it. The declaration that the award was binding took the place of its acceptance by the parties and so brought about an agreement between them. The Federal Ministry of Labour subsequently extended this measure to collective disputes, so for the first time applying it for the purposes of the conciliation system in the strict sense. This provided a means of imposing an award on one of the parties to a collective dispute.

This innovation roused much opposition, not only among employers, but also among workers and employees, and especially in the trade unions, which feared that it might lead to restrictions on the freedom of association and on their influence in determining conditions of labour. The Federal Ministry of Labour has however repeatedly pointed out that awards must be declared binding with prudence, and only for special reasons, and has issued instructions in this sense to the competent authorities. The generally accepted point of view appears with special clearness in the Conciliation Order of 30 October 1923, which has given legislative sanc-

tion to the principle of declaring awards binding. It provides that if an award is not accepted by both parties, it may be declared binding " if the settlement therein contained appears just and reasonable with due consideration for the interests of both parties, and if its application is desirable for economic and social reasons." The point of view that found increasing expression in the application of the Order of 23 December 1918 and of the system of declaring awards binding, namely, that the conciliation system should contribute towards building up the law on contracts, has in practice in course of time come to take a more prominent place in the opinions of the Federal Ministry of Labour and in legislation, and has gradually ousted the view that conciliation is merely a means of settling disputes. Thus by degrees the activity of the official conciliation authorities, which at first was mainly judicial, has come rather to be administrative. This transformation finds eloquent expression in certain differences between the draft of March 1922 for a Conciliation Order and the Conciliation Order of 30 October 1923. The former, in fact, indicated " collective disputes " as the subject of conciliation, and " the bringing about of an agreement between the parties concerned in the dispute " as the aim of the conciliation procedure ; while the Order characterises the tasks of the conciliation authorities by the statement that they " shall assist in the conclusion of collective agreements ".

The term " collective agreement " (*Gesamtvereinbarung*) covers both the " collective wage contract " (*Tarifvertrag*) or collective agreement properly speaking, and the works agreement (*Betriebsvereinbarung*). The latter is defined by the Works Councils Act ; it is an agreement between the employer of an undertaking which normally employs not less than 20 persons on the one hand, and the council of workers or employees or the works council on the other, concerning rules of employment or other service regulations. These agreements must not be confused with collective contracts as defined by the Order of 23 December 1918 ; for the Order prescribes that on the workers' side a collective contract must be concluded by one or more economic associations of workers or employees, and neither a council of workers or employees nor a works council nor the staff of an undertakings is an economic association.

The Conciliation Order of 30 October 1923 gives the parties a certain right as against the state. The state must in fact undertake the adjustment of disputes arising out of the conclusion of collective agreements, and must provide machinery for this purpose.

On the other hand, the Order is based on the conception that in general the parties are under no legal obligation to have recourse to the conciliation authorities in disputes of this kind.

The draft for a Conciliation Order, submitted to the legislature by the Federal Government in 1922, which has already been referred to, provided for a complete structure of conciliation authorities (conciliation offices, district conciliation offices, and an independent Federal conciliation office), and contained detailed regulations on their constitution and procedure. The discussion of this draft has not yet been completed by the Reichstag, and is hardly likely to be continued for the present. But as the need for reform of the conciliation system became more and more urgent, the Federal Government decided to promulgate the Conciliation Order of 30 October 1923[1], which has already been referred to several times. The provisions of this Order, and of the Regulations of the Federal Minister of Labour of 29 December 1923 (R.G.Bl., 1924, p. 9) for its application, represent the present stage of legislation on conciliation.

Under these Orders, there are now two kinds of conciliation authorities: Conciliation Committees, and Conciliators (*Schlichter*). These Committees took the place of the committees set up under the Order of 23 December 1918. Their number is less than half that of the earlier committees (120, as against 259). They are authorities of the separate States; their creation, constitution, and supervision are therefore within the competence of the supreme authority of the State concerned. In order, however, to secure the greatest possible uniformity, the State authorities have to act in agreement with the Federal Minister of Labour.

In fixing the districts of the new Conciliation committees, which were intended to cover the whole territory of the Reich, the boundaries were determined primarily with regard to economic relations, rather than to the administrative divisions of each State.

Each Conciliation Committee consists of one or more independent chairmen and vice-chairmen, appointed by the supreme State authority after hearing the economic associations of employers and employed in the district, and of assessors representing employers and employed (the same number for each group), who are also appointed on the proposal of the same associations. As before, special Chambers may be set up for specified branches of industry or kinds of occupation, in particular for agriculture.

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[1] Intenational Labour Office; *Legislative Series*, 1923, Ger. 6.

The Conciliators are appointed by the Federal Minister of Labour ; their appointment may be either permanent, for a certain area, or special and temporary, for individual cases. The permanent conciliators have fixed districts, determined by economic needs, so that their boundaries do not necessarily coincide with those of the various States ; at present there are 20 of these districts. They have to undertake conciliation, either on their own initiative, when they consider the case of special economic importance (at least when the case is wholly or largely within their district), or on the instructions of the Federal Minister of Labour. The first condition will be considered satisfied in the case of a dispute involving important questions of principle or likely to cause serious economic disturbance. The same criteria have to be applied by the Federal Minister of Labour in deciding the cases that justify the appointment of a special Conciliator. Among their other duties the permanent Conciliators have to try to secure the greatest possible uniformity in the regulation of conditions of work, especially as regards wages, while at the same time taking account of the special conditions of their own district. For this purpose they have to work in close contact with the State authorities concerned.

The Conciliation Committee must intervene if called upon to do so by one of the parties. The competent Committee is the one in whose district the workers or employees concerned are employed. The intervention of the Conciliator, either on his own initiative or on the request of one of the parties, excludes the competence of the Committee. The Conciliator may also take over the adjustment of a dispute already pending before a Conciliation Committee, but only if the Committee has not yet issued its award. Conciliation Committees and Conciliators are free to decide individual cases independently, and are not bound by instructions. The Federal Minister of Labour may however issue general guiding principles for their proceedings, to help them in attaining uniformity in their decisions, as for instance in regard to the policy they shall adopt on such questions as wages.

The Conciliation Committees cannot declare their own awards binding. For this the Conciliator is competent within whose district the award is applicable (i.e. where the workers or employees concerned are employed). If the area in which the award is applicable extends beyond the jurisdiction of a Conciliator, the Federal Minister of Labour is competent to declare the award binding.

The main features of the conciliation procedure are regulated by the Order of 30 October, and the details by the Regulations of

29 December 1923. The independent chairman of the Conciliation Committee or the Conciliator must in the first instance endeavour to bring about the conclusion of a collective agreement. If he fails to do so, the matter is discussed before an Adjustment Board (*Schlichtungskammer*). This consists of the independent chairman of the Conciliation Committee, with two assessors representative of employers and two representative of workers or employees. If the preliminary proceedings were conducted by a Conciliator, it is he who convenes the Board, acts as its chairman, and appoints equal numbers of employers and employed as assessors for each sitting. The number of the assessors is determined by the Conciliator; as a general rule there must not be more than two for each group. Their choice is also left to him, but he is expected to take account so far as possible of the special circumstances of the dispute and of the wishes of the parties.

The Adjustment Board first tries to reach an agreement. In case of failure, the Board puts before the parties an arbitration award, forming a proposal for the conclusion of a collective agreement. The Board's decision on the award is taken by a simple majority of votes, abstentions not being allowed; exceptionally, if there are more than two opinions on the Board, the chairman has a casting vote. The measures laid down in the Auxiliary Service Act for compelling the parties to appear and to negotiate have been maintained by the provision that an award will be issued on the request of one party, even if the other, in spite of receiving due notice, refuses to appear or to negotiate. In all cases the award has to be recorded in writing and published.

As the arbitration award is a proposal for a collective agreement and not a decision in settlement of a dispute, it follows that in the great majority of cases an appeal against it, such as is ordinarily and necessarily allowed in judicial procedure, would be impossible for legal reasons. The Conciliation Order, like its predecessors, has therefore refrained from allowing any kind of appeal against arbitration awards. Repetition of the conciliation proceedings is allowed only in exceptional cases, and provided that all the persons concerned agree or that it is necessary in the public interest.

If an arbitration award is accepted by both parties, it has the force of a written collective agreement. If one or both parties do not voluntarily accept it, the declaration that it is binding replaces their acceptance. A previous agreement by the parties — either general, or for a particular case — that an award shall have bind-

ing force is also equivalent to acceptance. This applies also to any legal provision that an award shall be binding; up to the present, however, the only provision of this kind is that in the Works Councils Act with reference to rules of employment and service regulations.

As the aim of the Conciliation Order was to clarify, simplify, and unify as far as possible the official conciliation machinery, it has done away with the functions of conciliation and adjustment of the Industrial and Commercial Courts and other former official conciliation authorities, and of the special Conciliation Committees for the staff of public administrations (Post Office, railways, etc.) set up under the Order of 23 December 1918. Its coming into operation has therefore involved the abrogation of the various laws and orders containing regulations for the working of these bodies.

The only surviving bodies, other than those set up under the Order of 30 October 1923, with official powers in the matter of conciliation are the " trade committees for home work " (*Fachausschüsse für Hausarbeit*). These committees were created by the Home Work Act of 20 December 1911. They consist of an independent chairman with expert knowledge, two assessors who need only have " the expert knowledge necessary for their work ", and equal numbers of the persons carrying on industries (employers) and the home workers concerned. The Act assigned to them a large number of tasks in regard to the regulation of home work and the promotion of the economic and social welfare of home workers. But in addition to their functions of providing expert advice and other assistance, the only way in which they were authorised to exert an influence on the conditions of labour of home workers was that they had to" encourage the conclusion of wage agreements or collective contracts ". An Act of 27 June 1923 (R.G.Bl., I, pp. 467 and 730) to amend the Home Work Act explicitly assigned to them " the functions of conciliation committees . . . in labour disputes between employers and home workers ".

In pursuance of the fundamental idea that it is for the parties themselves in the first instance to take steps to settle their disputes and to conclude collective agreements, the Conciliation Order has not only abstained from suppressing the private conciliation institutions set up by agreement, but has even given them priority over the official authorities. The Regulations of 29 December 1923 contain detailed rules for the procedure in the various cases that may be submitted to the private or official bodies, intended to

ensure the greatest possible speed in initiating and carrying through the conciliation procedure while maintaining the principles already laid down as to the sequence of competence. Arbitration awards of conciliation institutions set up by agreement may be declared binding in the same way as awards of official authorities ; the condition is however imposed that the dispute must be one which would have been within the competence of the official authorities if the case had not been referred to the private institution. In such cases the question of the authority competent to declare the award binding is settled by the same rules as for awards of the Conciliation Committees.

Conclusion

As was pointed out in the introduction to the first part of this article, the present moment is hardly favourable for a description of the machinery for the enforcement of labour law in Germany. For some considerable time the situation has been in a state of flux, especially as regards the jurisdiction of the various authorities competent to deal with labour matters, whose variety and complexity make it difficult to give a comprehensive survey of the question. Efforts to simplify and unify the system make evident the ultimate goal ; but this is still far from being reached. But perhaps the very complexities and obscurities of the present system may increase the interest of this article for observers, especially those in other countries, who wish not only to secure information on the present state of German labour law, but also to follow its subsequent development. Throughout the article the aim kept in view has been both to describe existing conditions clearly and comprehensibly, and to throw further light on them by indicating the stages through which they have passed, the legal principles and purposes on which they are based, and the way they are constituted. From all these points of view it may be hoped that neither the aim nor the value of the article will be lost even when the Labour Courts Act comes into force. For even though some sections of it may lose their immediate practical importance, yet they will still be indispensable for an understanding of the new Act, and for the study of the administration of labour law in Germany during the years before its coming into effect.

REPORTS AND ENQUIRIES

Conditions of Labour in the Surabaya (Java) Metal Industry

In December 1925 a strike of native workers broke out in the metal industry in Surabaya (Java), one of the most important districts in the Dutch East Indies. The strike was not of long duration, nor did it affect more than a few of the Surabaya firms. Nevertheless, the fact that it was more important than any previous strike, and the attitude of the public authorities in view of the alleged preponderating influence of the Communists in instigating it, led the Government of the Dutch East Indies to order an enquiry to be made into the conditions of labour in the metal industry. The results of the enquiry are contained in a Report presented by the Chief of the Labour Office to the Governor-General dated 21 May 1926[1].

The objects of the enquiry, as more closely defined in the introduction to the Report by Mr. A. G. Vreede, the Chief of the Labour Office of the Dutch East Indies, under whose supervision it was carried out in February and March 1926, were as follows : to ascertain whether the strike, in consequence of its marked communist character, was opposed so strongly by the authorities as to arouse in the minds of the quieter elements amongst the native workers the fear that their wishes and legitimate grievances were not to be accorded any attention, to obtain information on the course of the strike, to advise on the steps to be taken to deal with valid complaints in order to prevent further possible strikes, and to provide data from which the Government could conclude whether the demands of the workers were to be regarded as justified or not.

Before describing the conditions of labour as revealed by the enquiry, and the conclusions to which the investigators came, it will be convenient to consider the outward manifestations of dissatisfaction amongst the Surabaya workers which culminated in the strike of December 1925.

Previous Strike Movements

The Surabaya metal industry is in a relatively early stage of development. Mention is made in the Report of some twenty-nine undertakings — two engaged in shipbuilding and repair (including the State *Marine-*

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[1] Java. Kantoor van Arbeid : *Rapport van het Hoofd van het Kantoor van Arbeid over de Arbeidstoestanden in de Metaalindustrie te Soerabaja.* Publicaties van het Kantoor van Arbeid No. 1. Weltevreden, Landsdrukkerij, 1926. 144 pp., diagrams.

Etablissement), fifteen engaged in the repair and construction of machinery (more especially for the sugar industry), three railway and tramway workshops, and nine motor shops. These undertakings together employed at the time of the enquiry some 11,500 native workers, to which must be added 750 to 1,500 casual labourers.

The first strike movement recorded in the Report as affecting this industry, amongst others, took place in November and December 1920. During the autumn of 1920 a number of small unions of tailors, dock workers, factory workers, domestics, and draughtsmen and surveyors had been organised by a young native named Jahja, and grouped into a federation, of which Jahja became President. The organisation of these unions was very primitive, the only obligation of membership being the payment of an entrance fee of two guilders, and the only source of income the entrance fees of new members. No estimate is given of the number of workers who joined these unions.

In November the first partial strikes broke out amongst the tailors, printers and tug-workers, followed on 15 November by a strike of some 800 workers of the *Droogdok* (Dry Dock) Company, and on 22 November by a strike of 170 founders of the *Braat* machine construction works.

In the first case there was no evidence that the newly-formed unions had had any direct influence on the decision to strike. A general atmosphere of discontent had been created by dissatisfaction amongst the European staff, differential treatment of Europeans and natives in the matter of gratuities, and the importation of some Chinese workers. The strike aims were 50 per cent. increase of wages, a gratuity of one month's pay, and payment of wages during absence through sickness. In the second case the strike was caused by the refusal, a fortnight before, of a 15 per cent. wage increase, and was stated to have been due to Jahja's influence.

On the same day that the strike began at the *Braat* works, the employers' organisation (*Vereeniging van Machinefabrieken*), together with other non-affiliated employers, decided to declare a general lockout on 30 November unless the strikes at the *Droogdok* Company and the *Braat* works came to an end. This threat was neither taken seriously by the strikers nor understood by the workers in other establishments, and in spite of attempts by Jahja, who appears to have tried to exercise a moderating influence, to obtain a settlement through the good offices of the Assistant Resident, the lockout began on 30 November. It was to last for one week only, provided that on 6 December at least 80 per cent. of the workers presented themselves for work. Meanwhile, however the effective leadership of the workers is stated to have passed into the hands of a newly-formed " Welfare Committee " composed of a Chinese communist chairman and of natives of communist tendencies, and on 6 December none of the strikers returned to work. The lockout was therefore continued, until, in the third week, the employers decided to drop the demand that 80 per cent. of the workers should return before the lockout could be called off, and on 20 December the works were again opened. The return to work was fairly general both on the part of locked-out men and strikers, and conditions rapidly became normal.

With the exception of a partial strike in one undertaking in 1923, no further strike movements are mentioned before the 1925 strikes which were the cause of the enquiry. The period 1920-1925 was generally a slump period; the boom of 1918-1920 continued for a time into the year 1921, but was followed in 1922 by a crisis from which the industry had only begun to recover in 1925. With a view to reducing costs of production, the employers began in 1922 to reduce wages and to abolish supplementary forms of wages such as bonuses, payment for breaks, etc., until in 1925 wage rates were at the 1920 level and almost all forms of supplementary wages had disappeared. Meanwhile, the trade union movement had been developing in new forms and under definitely communist leadership. One of these unions, to which further reference will be made below in connection with the 1925 strikes, was the *Sarekat Boeroeh Bengkel*, the President of which was a commissary appointed by the central administration of the Communist Party of Indonesia, and the membership of which, in October 1925, appears to have been about 2,000. The investigators conclude from their enquiries in official circles, from employers and from reliable native informants, that the Communists were preparing the way for a strike which should have been more general and should have taken place somewhat later than those which will now be described.

The 1925 Strikes

The strikes in the metal industry were preceded by a strike of the native skilled workers of an important printing works. This strike began on 1 September 1925, the workers' demands being an increase of wages of about 25 per cent. (this increase had been granted in 1923, but abolished again in 1924), six weeks' wages on involuntary discharge, and free medical attendance and medicaments in case of sickness. The reason why these demands were made at this time was said to be because the firm was executing orders for its Semarang branch, where a strike instigated by Communists was in progress. A Committee of enquiry composed of other master printers recommended an increase of wages from January 1926, and two weeks' notice on involuntary discharge in the case of workers of more than one year's service and one week's notice in other cases. These terms were not accepted by the workers, and the strike continued until 9 November, when it was considered as completely broken. None of the workers' demands were granted, a 10 per cent. diligence bonus was abolished, and of the old staff only 40 per cent. were reinstated.

The first strike in the metal industry began on 5 October 1925 with the refusal of the management of the *Nederlandsch-Indische Industrie* to reinstate a workman discharged for communist propaganda. The strike was confined to the workers of two departments, but the management was notified by letter from the *Sarekat Boeroeh Bengkel* that the other departments would also strike on 12 October unless before 10 October the following demands had been accepted: (1) reinstatement of the discharged workman with full pay since discharge, (2) reinstatement of all strikers with full pay for period of the strike, (3) disbursement of

the Pension and Burial Fund of 18,000 guilders (a fund raised by a 10 per cent. deduction from wages and contribution of an equal sum by the firm), (4) wages to be calculated by the day instead of by the hour, and a 5½-day week to be considered a 7-day week for purposes of pay, (5) work on Sundays and holidays to be paid at one and three-quarter times the regular rate, (6) payment of three weeks' wages on discharge without valid reasons. In these circumstances, the management decided to accept points (1) to (3), the discharged workman was reinstated (but in a different department), the strikers' wages were paid, a sum of 8,732 guilders was paid out of the Fund, and work was resumed by the strikers on 12 October.

The action of the management of the *Nederlandsch-Indische Industrie* in accepting some of the workers' demands is stated to have been hailed by the workers as a success for the *Sarekat Boeroeh Bengkel*, the membership of which rapidly increased. In the view of the management there was nothing else to be done, in face of the failure of the other employers to co-operate by declaring a lockout and that of the authorities to proceed against the instigators of the strike. The employer's association, the *Vereeniging van Machinefabrieken*, which had taken the leadership of the employers' side in 1920, is described as having no effective existence in ordinary times. There was thus no guarantee that other employers would come to the assistance of the firm affected, and the keen competition of the employers for orders and for skilled workmen gave the management cause to fear the extension of the strike to other departments and a prolonged stoppage.

The next incident of a similar kind took place, on 19 November in the tool-making department at the *Braat* works, where a man was discharged for incapacity. On 23 November the men of his own and two other departments struck as a result of the refusal of the management to reinstate him. The same day, before 12 noon, a letter was received from the President of the *Sarekat Boeroeh Bengkel*, demanding the reinstatement of the discharged man and full pay for the period he had not worked, reinstatement of the strikers (about 60 men) and full pay, disbursement of the Savings Fund, recognition of the union. About the same time, moreover, a number of the native foremen approached the management and requested that the Savings Fund should be paid out. On the refusal of the management, some 500 men went on strike, and the stoppage would have been general on 24 November had not the firm immediately begun to engage new workers. By these means the firm continued working, although the old workers did not begin to return in any number until the third week in December, and the strike was not considered to be over until the beginning of January when the percentages of old and new staff were 46 and 54.

On 30 November the main strike movement began with the request of the Surabaya branch of the Federation of the *Sarekat Boeroeh Bengkel dan Electrik* that the Federation should submit a list of twenty-one demands to seven machine construction firms (including both the *Nederlandsch-Indische Industrie* and *Braat*), employing altogether some 3,000 skilled native workers. This the Federation did on 2 December, following it up on 11 December by sending somewhat similar

demands to the *Droogdok* Company. A list of these demands, with the investigators' comments, will be given below. Meanwhile, no notice was taken of them at the moment or during the strike, for, threatened by a movement in which they considered that the control of their works was at stake, the employers met at once and decided on a common course of action. It was agreed that no negotiations should take place with the union or with any communist organisation or with any person not belonging to the native work-people, that no reply should be made or action taken in respect of demands put forward collectively, that all action on the part of the employers and the leadership of the employers' side generally should be placed in the hands of a Commission of two persons (the Chairman of the Java Sugar Manufacturers' Association and the Chairman of the *Vereeniging van Machinefabrieken in Nederlandsch-Indië*), that any employer in whose works a strike had broken out should be entitled to the assistance of the other employers on terms to be fixed by this Commission, which should also decide when a strike could be deemed to have begun or terminated, and that no employer should engage a striker from another factory and in no case should work be given to persons reported to be " ringleaders ".

In its letters to the firms affected, the Workers' Federation had fixed 9 and 18 December respectively as the dates upon which replies were expected from the seven machine construction firms and from the *Droogdok* Company. As no replies were received, the strike was declared on 14 December and 21 December respectively. It was at first fairly general in respect of the seven firms concerned; but by the time the *Droogdok* Company was affected, the workers were beginning to return and at the end of the year the strike was practically over. In addition to the measures taken by the employers, action had been taken by the public authorities in view of the communist character of the strike leadership.

On 15 December a representative of the Governor of West Java and the Chief Commissioner of Police of Batavia had arrived. They had found that the leadership of the strike was in the hands of Communists and that it was intended to try to extend the strike to various state and lighting undertakings. It was therefore decided to deal the threatening and spreading communist danger a decisive blow. The real leader — a member of the central administration of the Communist Party of Indonesia — only escaped arrest by leaving the country, some twenty " ringleaders " were placed under preventive arrest (more Communists were arrested later after police house-to-house searches), and the disillusioned strikers were notified by the police that they should return to work and that if they returned in time they would be reinstated at the former rate of wages. The active Communists were traced and a list made of them. Those workers who presented themselves for work before the date announced by the employers were reinstated at their former wages, the others were engaged at lower rates.

It was reported by almost all the firms concerned that those who wished to work were intimidated by the strikers, by one firm that there was an attempt at sabotage, and by another that work was done badly and carelessly.

On the other hand, complaints were made by the workers of the action taken by the employers after the strike. These complaints and the comments of the investigators thereon may be summarised as follows :

(1) Workers were not reinstated at the old rates of pay. In the view of the investigators this complaint was based on the fact that those who reported for work after the date fixed by the employers were either reinstated at lower rates or were not engaged at all, in which case they would have to seek work at other undertakings at lower rates.

(2) A finger-print system was introduced, which made the workers feel that they were powerless and unable to leave a job which they did not like, or when they had been badly treated, as it was their custom to do. The only comment on this system, which the investigators considered to be in itself a good measure, is that, together with the " black " or " red " list to be mentioned next, it meant permanent unemployment for marked persons.

(3) Inscription of workers on a " black " or " red " list without sufficient evidence that they were Communists. The investigators considered that this measure, which they do not condemn in itself, should only be carried out after careful enquiry in order to make sure that only " ringleaders " should be placed on the list. Representations to that effect to the President of the Employers' Association led to a promise to take into consideration the question of the revision of the list.

The investigators note that in some cases employers had excluded all who could read and write from employment, on the ground that partly-educated workers and the ex-pupils of the Technical School were the easiest preys of communist propaganda. In so doing, the investigators considered that the employers had gone too far, particularly in regard to the ex-pupils of the Technical School, and they suggested to the President of the Employers' Association that if the instruction given in the School was not suited to practical needs, it would be better to try to improve it rather than to refuse to employ its pupils.

Such was the strike of 1925 and its consequences. An analysis will now be given of the results of the enquiry into the conditions of labour in the metal industry. It will be followed by an account of the demands put forward before the strike and of the investigators' comments thereon. Finally, the general conclusions of the investigators will be given.

Conditions of Labour

It has already been stated that the enquiry covered some twenty-nine undertakings — including all those affected by the strike — and employing some 11,500 workers and 750 to 1,500 casual labourers. The 11,521 workers consisted of the following categories : 204 mandoors (native foremen), 8,881 tookangs (skilled workers), 1,004 coolies (labourers), 6 women, 625 boys, 149 clerks, 120 draughtsmen, 532 miscellaneous. The vast majority of these workers were natives of Surabaya ;

the percentage of workers who had attended any kind of school was approximately 6 per cent. in the case of the shipbuilding and machine construction works, and 13.3 per cent. in the case of the motor workshops.

Contractual Relations between Employers and Employed

Except in the case of a small number of workers, mostly clerks and draughtsmen, who were in receipt of monthly salaries and who ordinarily received one month's notice of discharge or one month's pay in lieu of notice, the contractual relation between employer and employed is described as a very loose one indeed and as leaving very much to be desired. There was no feeling of mutual obligation — the worker had no interest in the undertaking and felt free to leave at any moment; the employer showed little interest in the worker and felt that he had the right to discharge him at any hour of the day. Very approximate statistics of length of service collected by the investigators showed that about 15 per cent. of the workers had been with their firms from 3 to 5 years, 17 per cent from 5 to 10 years, and 8 per cent. over 10 years. The situation was worse in the case of the casual labourers who were taken on by the day and who had to wait daily outside the gates of the undertaking in the hope of getting employment.

In the larger undertakings there was little personal contact between the management and the worker, or even between the workers and the European overseers. Little or no effort was made to understand or take account of the natives' mentality. The European overseer usually did not know either Javanese or Madurese. and, failing to make himself understood in a mixture of Dutch and Malay, frequently resorted to oaths and sometimes to blows, or relied entirely on the native foreman.

The investigators suggest that an attempt should be made to create more binding relations between employers and workers, by a more definite form of contract, by bonuses, pensions, or relief after a period of years' service, and by more personal interest in the worker. The Javanese are very docile and of great suggestibility. These characteristics, which under present conditions have made them particularly susceptible to communist propaganda, could equally be turned to good account in creating more satisfactory relations between them and their employers.

Wages

The method of fixing rates of wages was in all cases that of individual bargaining by each worker with the management of the firm. Day rates were paid in 11 of the mechanical engineering works and in all the motor workshops; in 7 undertakings wages were reckoned by the hour. In two of the latter cases, a change was made in 1922 and 1923 from day rates to hour rates, and had caused some discontent because the workers felt that they had lost by the change, as it was possible to calculate more exactly deductions for lost time, etc. This complaint the investigators held to be unjustified.

In addition to work by the day or the hour, there existed in

many undertakings a system, known as *borongan*, under which extra piece work was performed. In some cases this took the form of piece-work payment for work over and above a set task which was considered to be the equivalent of the fixed wage. In other cases certain special kinds of work were distributed as piece work. Usually the system was so operated that the worker had time to earn his fixed wage, but the examination of the wage books of one firm showed that many of the men had suffered deductions from their fixed wages in consequence of the time taken over the piece work, invariably to their disadvantage. For example, if a man whose fixed daily wage was 2 guilders took a day to complete a piece of work for which he was paid 1 guilder, then he would be the loser by 1 guilder. The comment of the Report is that such bad management can only cause discontent.

Wages were usually paid on Saturday in respect of the period from Friday in the preceding week to Thursday inclusive. This system was introduced owing to the difficulty of making up the books properly in sufficient time. It need not necessarily have given rise to complaints, but it had frequently happened that a man who was discharged on Saturday never received his wages for Friday and Saturday, especially if the management had been dissatisfied with him. Moreover, a worker who was absent from Monday and did not return, even if it was as a result of sickness, lost his pay for Friday and Saturday. On the occasion of the December strike, which began on a Monday, the employers withheld the wages of the strikers for the preceding Friday and Saturday, and refused to pay these wages after the strike by way of punishment. In most cases a worker who absented himself from work on Saturday was made to wait until Tuesday for the wages he should have received on that day.

An attempt was made by the investigators to obtain as complete statistical information as possible with regard to the daily rates of wages paid for one or more weeks of the month of October of the years 1920 to 1925, and in January 1926, in respect of twenty-six undertakings.

It is impossible in this summary to reproduce the tables containing this information and which are given on pages 20-24 and in Appendix I of the Report, but a general indication of the standards of wages paid may be gathered from the following table. Owing to the incompleteness of the figures available, no other conclusion is to be drawn from this table than that of the total number of workers given for any one period in column (1), the numbers of workers given in columns (2), (3), and (4) were on varying wage rates of under 1 guilder a day, between 1 and 1.50 guilders a day, and over 1.50 guilders a day.

STATISTICS OF WAGE LEVELS, 1920-1926

Period (a week during the month)	Total number of workers for whom data available	Number of workers on daily rates of		
		less than 1 guilder	1—1.50 guilders	over 1.50 guilders
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
October 1920	2,824	1,107	820	897
October 1921	2,985	750	1,025	1,210
October 1922	3 ,48	728	1,140	1,620
October 1923	3,244	752	910	1,582
October 1924	3 899	1,049	1,147	1,703
October 1925	9,383	2,893	3,043	3,447
January 1926	9,401	3,083	3,089	3,229

Other tables are given on pages 26-28 showing for four firms the numbers and percentages of smiths, turners, and moulders comprised in the same wage groups into which the workers indicated in the preceding table are divided. From these tables, and a table on pages 28 and 29 showing the methods adopted by the various firms to reduce costs of production by reducing wages or abolishing supplementary wage forms, but even more from a table on page 30 showing the movement of average wages at the works of the *Nederlandsch-Indische Industrie*, it is possible to obtain some idea of the variations in wage rates during the years 1919-1925. From the table compiled from the very complete wages statistics of the *Nederlandsch-Indische Industrie* and showing for each department the average wages and the index number for each year in relation to 1919 taken as the base year the following extract may be given:

VARIATIONS IN DAILY WAGE RATES, 1919-1925

Year	All skilled workers		All coolies	
	Average daily wages paid (cents)	Index number	Average daily wages paid (cents)	Index number
1919	107	100	60	100
1920	127	118.7	73	122
1921	155	145	93	155
1922	160	149.5	95	158
1923	165	154	106	177
1924	156	146	89	148
1925	136	129	82	137

The conclusions of the investigators from the available wage statistics are that, generally speaking, the number of lower paid workers increased during the period under review, that a relatively larger percentage of better paid workers were to be found in the motor workshops and in the works of the *Droogdok* Company than in the machine construction works, and that the general movement of wages can be summed up as follows : wages rose from 1919 to 1922 and in some cases to 1923 and even 1924, then fell again to a point somewhat above the 1920 level.

The investigators found it impossible to obtain statistical data which would enable them to compare in detail the movements of prices with the movements of wages. The prices prevailing in Surabaya during the years 1920-1924 for certain principal articles of food — such as rice, cassava, maize, coconuts, kerbau or water buffalo meat, and eggs — were however found to follow a curve parallel to the average prices in Java and Madura, although they were usually higher and it was therefore possible to formulate the following general conclusion : that, whilst wages rose considerably between 1919 and 1922, they remained behind the big increase in prices of 1920 ; that wages remained generally stationary in 1922 and 1923 although prices fell sharply ; and that, whereas prices rose again slightly in 1924 and 1925, wages fell heavily.

Reference will be made below under " Conditions of Life " to the question whether the money wages paid were sufficient to enable the native workers to maintain their standard of living, but before leaving the subject of wages it is necessary to make mention of a number of factors which have a bearing on the sufficiency of wages, such as deductions, welfare arrangements, special housing facilities, etc.

Deductions from wages were found to be made for such various reasons as advances, fines, taxes, rent, expenses of night watchmen, and in consequence of membership of a co-operative society. They did not usually amount to more than one day's pay a week, although it was found that in one case an important firm were in the habit of deducting a whole month's rent from the wages of one week in the month, so that with the other deductions (tax, night watchmen, and co-operative society) the workman only received 20 per cent. of his wages for that week.

Bonuses were practically non-existent after the strike. They had formerly been paid either directly to the workers or into a savings fund as a reward for regular work.

Gratuities formerly given at the native New Year were maintained only by five firms. In one case they took the form of a week's pay for every year's service, up to a maximum of six weeks' pay.

Pension schemes approved by law were in force in the state undertakings (*Marine-Etablissement* and the Surabaya Railway), and in various forms in a few other works. The East Java Steam Tramway Company had a pension fund for its permanent staff, including the technical staff of the workshops and depôts as well as the running staff. At the time of the enquiry seven persons were in receipt of pensions varying from 6 guilders to 31.33 guilders a month ; in two

cases the pensions were for 7 and 11 years respectively and in the other cases for life. The Madura Steam Tramway Company paid a lump sum equal to 30 days' wages in cases of invalidity arising out of and in course of employment (*in en door den dienst*). Ten old employees of the *Nederlandsch-Indische Industrie* received 2.50 guilders a week. Five old employees of the *Braat* works received sums varying from 18 to 25 guilders a month. One of Younge and Gills' workmen who lost his sight as a result of and in course of employment (*in en door den dienst*) was in receipt of 4 guilders a week. Another firm had prepared a pensions scheme, the management holding that such a scheme was an excellent means of strengthening the links between employer and worker, but postponed further consideration in consequence of the strike, in order that the institution of a pensions fund might not be hailed by the Communists as a successful result of the strike. In the other firms no provision whatever was made for the old age of the worker.

In regard to medical assistance, it is stated that the only provision made by most firms was that of simple medicaments and bandages. A few firms only had arrangements for free medical or hospital treatment of sick workers. It was the rule, in case of accident, for the firm to pay hospital expenses and full wages or part wages for a certain period, but regulations only existed in a few cases. Only a few firms paid full wages or part wages in case of sickness, and of these some only paid wages in special cases.

Housing accommodation for their workers was provided by a few firms only, and then only for a small number. The State *Marine-Etablissement* had 300 stone dwellings available at monthly rents of 7, 6, and 5 guilders respectively. The 7 guilder or A class of dwellings consisted of a room of $4 \times 4\frac{1}{2}$ metres with small veranda on two sides divisible into smaller rooms; the 6 guilder or B class consisted of two rooms of $3 \times 3\frac{1}{2}$ metres and a veranda of $3\frac{1}{2} \times 1\frac{1}{2}$ metres; the 5 guilder or C class were as the B class but without a veranda. All these dwellings had kitchens, which in the case of the A class were so large that they were used as rooms. As many as 9 or 10 Madurese coolies were found living in some of the A class dwellings, whilst unsightly shacks had been built outside to serve as kitchens. The chaos in the compound in consequence of these shacks was not improved by the numerous poultry and goat sheds. Bathrooms and W. C.'s were also provided, but were not always used for their proper purpose, in the latter case to some extent owing to defective plumbing and sewage arrangements. Water from the town supply was on sale in various parts of the compound at 4 to 5 cents a *picol*.

The Surabaya Railway workshops had at their disposal a good clean compound of 285 dwellings, the rents of which were 14.50, 7.50, and 4.50 guilders respectively. The East Java Steam Tramway Company had excellent dwellings for the running staff at rents of 2, 3, and 6 guilders a month, not including the cost of electric light or water, for which latter 1.50 guilders per man per month was charged. The Madura Steam Tramway Company had 24 dwellings consisting of two small rooms and a small veranda. The Dry Dock (*Drooydok*) Company had for its dock seamen and coolies six large sheds, in which

a number of Chinese and Javanese workers in the shops had also found accommodation. These sheds had been divided into small rooms by the workers themselves on their own initiative and at their own expense. Water from the town supply could be bought at 2 to 3 cents a petrol can. Kitchens were provided, but many people preferred to do their cooking in the sheds. The ground round the sheds was kept in good order. Some Madurese coolies working for the firms *Bakker* and *Noordijk* had built sheds on low-lying ground near the works. No housing accommodation was provided by the other firms.

Hours of Work

In the same way as nearly everything else relating to conditions of work, hours were fixed quite independently by each undertaking without regard to the action of its competitors. The hours of work in the undertakings covered by the enquiry varied from 7 to 10 per day as follows : 7 hours at 1 firm, 8 hours at 4 firms, 8½ hours at 6 firms, 9 hours at 8 firms, 9½ hours at 8 firms, 10 hours at 3 firms. Of the sixteen firms engaged in machine construction, 2 worked 8 hours, 1 worked 8½ hours, 2 worked 9 hours, 8 worked 9½ hours, and 3 worked 10 hours. A break of half-an-hour or of one hour is usual in the middle of the day, but two firms worked continuously for 7 and 9 hours respectively. Most firms closed down on Sundays, at Christmas, and on the Mohammedan holidays, except in cases of pressure of work.

Overtime is stated to have been frequent in some undertakings and sometimes even exorbitant. At the *Droogdok* Company, where much of the work was ship repair, the men were not infrequently called upon to work the whole 24 hours. The same thing occurred, although exceptionally, in other undertakings. It was found in the course of the enquiry that workers at one of the biggest firms had worked seven full days and two nights — a total of 88 hours — during one week of 1925. Their ordinary pay was 1.25 guilders a day or 7.50 guilders a week ; for the week in question they received 15.17 guilders. There were other cases in which men of the same firm had worked 84 hours. During these periods of pressure, which usually preceded the busy period in the sugar factories and were due to the fact that the sugar firms sent their orders in at the eleventh hour, the men had no choice but to work the overtime demanded of them by the employers.

The great variations from one firm to another in the extra remuneration for overtime, night work, and Sunday work are shown in a table of eleven examples given on page 38 of the Report, of which the following summary may be given :

Overtime : (1) 4.30 a.m. to 6 a.m. nil, 6 p.m. to 11.30 p.m. 25 per cent. ; (2) 4 p.m. to 8 p.m. nil ; (3) 50 per cent. with an overtime bonus ; (4) no extra pay ; (5) 6 a.m. to 7 a.m. 25 per cent., 5 p.m. to 10 p.m. and during ordinary breaks 25 per cent. ; (6) no extra pay ; (7) no extra pay ; (8) no overtime ; (9) no extra pay ; (10) 50 per cent., overtime only worked on Saturday afternoons and Sundays ; (11) 100 per cent., overtime only worked on Sundays.

Night work : (1) 6 p.m. to 6 a.m. 50 per cent., unless a free day followed

when it was 25 per cent.; (2) 6 p.m. to 6 a.m. 100 per cent., although in one case a night's work from 6 p.m. to 6 a.m. was only paid for by a day's wage which during the day would have been earned in 7½ hours; (3) no information; (4) 100 per cent.; (5) 100 per cent.; (6) 100 per cent.; (7) 100 per cent.; (8) and (9) no night work; (10) and (11) no information.

Sunday work: (1), (2), (3), (4), (8), and (10) 50 per cent.; (5), (6), (7) and (11) 100 per cent.; (9) no extra pay.

Very little overtime was worked by the motor workshops, and where it did take place the ordinary rates were paid, with one exception. Most firms pay extra wages for work, such as machine-fitting, away from Surabaya.

A feature of the metal industry, which was much complained of by the employers, was absenteeism. The Report examines this question very thoroughly, and tables are given on pages 42-44 and in Appendix II which show the number of days lost in a given week or weeks of the years 1920-1926, the index number of cases of absenteeism (number of man-days lost as percentage of total number of man-days which could have been worked), and the number of supernumerary workers it would be necessary to employ if the full possible number of days of work were to be worked. It is impossible to give a full abstract of these tables here, but the following table showing the situation as regards four of the more important firms may be given:

STATISTICS OF ABSENTEEISM IN CERTAIN FIRMS

Name of firm	Period (usually second week in month)	Number of workers who worked at least one day in the week	Index of absenteeism	Number of necessary supernumeraries
Marine-Etablissement	Oct. 1925	4,002	16.1	644
	Jan. 1926	4,059	15.5	628
Ned.-Ind. Industrie	Oct. 1920	499	10.5	50
	Oct. 1921	524	9.9	52
	Oct. 1922	491	10.9	54
	Oct. 1923	491	14.0	69
	Oct. 1924	516	15.0	77
	Oct. 1925	610	26.2[1]	160
Droogdok	Oct. 1922	564	14.4	81
	Oct. 1923	741	16.0	119
	Oct. 1924	643	18.8	120
	Oct. 1925	790	16.3	129
	Jan. 1926	752	12.3	143
Braat	Oct. 1924	604	8.0	51
	Oct. 1925	503	11.0	39
	Jan. 1926	805	11.2	90

[1] Partial strike in progress.

It may be added that the figures for the other mechanical engineering firms show similar variations, whilst the absenteeism in the motor workshops was generally smaller.

The reasons for this absenteeism are stated by the investigators to be of very varied character. If in the first place absenteeism be attributed to the bad habits of the native workers, it is necessary in considering the causes to eliminate the widespread evil of enforced absenteeism, known amongst the natives as *perlossan* — i.e. the custom of turning workers off at a moment's notice for a few days in the week, or until they are again wanted, because work is slack, a custom which throws the whole risk of work upon the worker just as much as the day-to-day engagement system in the case of casual labourers.

As regards voluntary absenteeism, the view was too often expressed that it was due to laziness and high wages. More than once during the enquiry the opinion was expressed by employers that the native only worked regularly when he received low wages, had to pay his taxes, and was deeply in debt with the loan bank. The investigators found, however, that there was no evidence to show that in Surabaya the better paid workers stayed away from work more than the lower paid workers.

The days upon which most workers were absent were Friday and Monday. The Friday absences were found to be sufficiently explained by the desire of the workers to go to the mosque. The Monday absences were more difficult to account for. No evidence was obtained to show that the reasons were the same as those which used to make the " blue " Monday so common in Europe. The natives, when questioned, invariably gave the reasons as " tiredness ". Two other causes of absenteeism were grouped by the natives under the term " tiredness ". The first of these causes is moral — the native worker is morally tired when he is badly or unjustly treated and his natural reaction to such treatment is to disappear. The second is physical — the native worker is physically tired when he is sick. The natives suffer far more from sickness — malaria, tuberculosis, dysentery, venereal disease, and ankylostomiasis — than was formerly supposed. They are not strong physically, and symptoms of sickness which are not recognisable by the non-medical eye frequently cause them to remain away from work for a few days.

The investigators were of opinion that better arrangements for dealing with pressure of work, medical examination and treatment, and a tactful and just attitude towards the workers would do much to improve the attendance at work. Hitherto employers had taken no effective steps to deal with the question, either doing nothing at all or simply discharging all men who absented themselves without permission. A small firm had adopted the method of enquiring into all cases of absenteeism and of discharging habitual offenders, but the managements of the larger firms considered the system impossible in their case.

Conditions of Life

It was not found possible during the short period of the enquiry to prepare family budgets for the various classes of skilled workers. Very interesting figures were however collected, showing for 606 workers' families living in various compounds the amount of the monthly earnings spent on rent, water and light, transport for the man, and taxes,

and the percentage of the earnings which remained available for food and clothing. These figures are given in Appendix III of the Report. The Central Statistical Office had calculated that, in the case of the families of a small number of native officials with salaries of less than 100 guilders a month, the normal expenditure on food was 50 per cent., on rent 8 to 9 per cent., and on clothing 9 to 10 per cent. Considering that the expenditure of skilled workers would be somewhat higher on food and lower on clothing, the Chief of the Statistical Office came to the conclusion that 55 per cent. for food and 7½ per cent. for clothing, or 62½ per cent. for both, would be a reasonable standard. The following table shows separately for families living in rented houses and families living in their own houses how many of the 606 families recorded were above and below this standard:

NUMBERS OF FAMILIES HAVING VARIOUS PERCENTAGES OF EARNINGS AVAILABLE FOR FOOD AND CLOTHING

Type of family	Percentage of earnings available for food and clothing					Total number of families
	Under 40	40-50	50-62½	Under 62½	Over 62½	
Living in rented houses	69	67	168	304	254	558
Living in own houses	1	2	17	20	28	48

This table shows that in 53 per cent. of the cases considered the man's earnings were in any case insufficient to provide his family with proper food and clothing, largely owing to the relatively heavy charges for rent, water and light, transport, and taxes (3 per cent. of income). In such circumstances it was usual for the wife and sometimes the children to earn. No particulars were obtained with regard to coolies, but it may be assumed that their situation was generally less favourable.

The housing conditions of the workers were examined in personal visits of the investigators to the compounds, and a number of photographs illustrative of some of the worst conditions found are given on pages 51-60. The conditions in the compounds varied considerably, the worst apparently being in the town compounds where dwellings or pieces of land were rented, the best being those where the workers still owned houses inherited from their parents.

In one of the worst compounds the low-lying plots between the dwellings were covered with thick greenish evil-smelling mud, the gutters and ditches were filled with human excrement, dead rats were lying about although there was plague in the compound, and a large water butt stood in a pool of filth so that it was (luckily) impossible to reach it. In the same compound hovels inhabited by factory coolies, domestic servants, and policemen were found with doors so low that the investigator had to creep in on his knees. A room in one of these hovels was rented by the Arab proprietor at 3 guilders a month. In another compound visited, the proprietor had let pieces of ground for building

at 1.30 guilders a month, but tried recently to raise the ground rent to 7 guilders. Various sheds in this compound, connected by covered gangways, were let to Chinese and Madurese by an Arab at 10 guilders a month per compartment.

One of the better compounds in the town was inhabited by both natives and Europeans, and many of the native workers owned the houses they lived in. These houses had a good appearance, and the gutters and ground between the houses were clean. Some compounds outside the town, inhabited by workers of the *Marine-Etablissement* and the *Droogdok* Company were found to be spacious, planted with shady trees, and to have a plentiful water supply. The houses were owned by the workers who had inherited them from their parents. Looking at these good and roomy houses, well furnished, the investigator was impressed with the fact that the economic position of the native had not improved in recent years. The native worker of the same status who had to rent a house obtained less accommodation and had no furniture worth mentioning. Generally speaking, the rents were found to be very dear. One small house of two rooms, owned by an Arab, was rented at 6 guilders a month.

The high rents and the housing shortage are stated to be the result of the clearance of areas formerly covered by compounds. The result had been that the workers had either to go to live some distance away and incur heavy transport expenses or crowd into the nearer rack-rented and unhealthy compounds. Great bitterness had been caused by the methods employed in effecting these clearances and the compensation paid for dwellings which had to be given up was stated to be quite inadequate for building new dwellings. The investigators consider that the public authorities should give serious attention to housing, as no wages are paid which bear any proportion to the high rents and there is much sickness owing to the conditions in the compounds.

Another point in connection with housing to which attention is drawn in the Report was the frequency with which workers had to travel considerable distances to work. The figures given in Appendix III of the expenses of 606 families show that in 425 cases, or 70 per cent., the worker had to use transport to and from the place of work, and that in many cases the fares constituted a serious item in the family budget.

Finally, the Report refers under the heading of " Conditions of Life " to the universal indebtedness of the native worker. Not a single worker questioned during the visits to the compounds was free from debt, and many workers had not a cent left on Sunday from the wages received the day before. The custom was for the worker in need of money to " sell his wages ", and some money-lenders specialised in this business. A man earning 2.40 guilders a day could obtain, after four days' work, an advance from the money-lender of 8 guilders, for which he had to pay 9.60 guilders on pay-day. In some cases enormous interest was charged. One man stated that he had borrowed 25 guilders from a money-lender, and that he was paying it back in 13 weeks at 2.50 guilders a week : interest 120 per cent. Another had to pay off a debt of 5 guilders in 6 weeks at 1 guilder a week : interest 170 per cent. Most workers had also debts to shopkeepers. As, however, this

indebtedness was found equally amongst the lower and the better paid workers, no conclusion could be drawn from it with regard to the question of the adequacy of the rates of wages paid.

Conditions of Workshops

The workshops of the larger mechanical engineering firms and of the majority of the motor firms were found to be good, lofty, light, and airy, so that the heat was hardly noticeable; only in one or two cases were improvements necessary. Conditions in the smaller workshops were generally inferior, although in a few cases only were there noticeable defects. Drinking water was everywhere available, and in all cases except one there were facilities for baths, which, however, were in some cases in need of improvement. The workshops were regularly inspected by officials of the Security Service.

The Workers' Demands

After this review of the conditions of labour it will be possible to appreciate better the demands put forward on behalf of the workers before the 1925 strike and the comments of the Report upon them. As already stated, these demands received no consideration at all at the time of the strike, which was viewed by the employers and the public authorities as a purely communist manœuvre. The following is a summary of the demands and the comments upon them:

(1) *Pay by the day instead of by the hour.* Payment by the hour was introduced in a few cases to diminish costs of production, as it was possible under this system to calculate deduction for lost time more accurately. It should not be a disadvantage to the worker, but in the undertakings concerned the workers periodically express the desire to return to day rates.

(2) *The eight-hour day, and extra hours to be paid as overtime.* If a ten-hour day is too long for the heavier kinds of work, the demand for an eight-hour day is only a catchword borrowed from the West. The normal working hours are generally favourable, in some cases even very favourable.

(3) *Overtime to be paid at double rates.* A uniform regulation of overtime rates is desirable, but it is not necessary to pay 100 per cent. extra for all overtime.

(4) *Work on Sundays and holidays to be paid as overtime.* This is already the custom in most works; it should be adopted in the others.

(5) *Only half a day to be worked on Saturday, but a full day's wage to be paid.* In this industry it is customary to close down on Sundays, a rule which does not apply in many other industries. To ask for the Saturday half-holiday is to go too far. In slack times it would be technically possible, but the payment of a full day's wage would be too heavy a burden for the industry. This question should be considered in connection with:

(6) *A diligence bonus for those who work the whole week.* It is regrettable that this bonus has been abolished; it was a good stimulus

to regular work and much prized by the workers. The reintroduction of the bonus on a uniform scale in all undertakings is recommended.

(7) *No withholding of a part of the wages owing to shortage of small change or to absence on Friday and Saturday.* The first part of this demand is considered just. The second part gives rise to the recommendation that workers who desire time off on Fridays to go to the mosque should be permitted to take it without pay ; the loss of pay to the worker could be made up by the diligence bonus. Payment of wages on Saturday when the worker does not come to work on that day is not recommended.

(8) *Yearly increase of wages of at least 10 cents per man per day.* Such increases were formerly given to good workers. It is recommended that the system should be reintroduced as a reward for good work, the scale to be fixed by the employers.

(9) *Free medical treatment in cases of sickness and accident, and full wages during sickness.* Free medical attendance would be in the interest of the firms themselves, and the appointment of factory doctors or arrangements with hospitals are recommended. Whilst it is theoretically just that permanent employees should receive full or part wages for a reasonable time during sickness, it is not considered that this part of the demand is at present practicable owing to malingering and the impossibility of supervision. In accident cases free medical treatment and full wages should certainly be granted.

(10) *Work outside the factory to be paid as overtime.* This demand is reasonable and is already applied by most firms.

(11) *Pension funds.* The general regulation of this question is certainly desirable and would bind the workers to their employers.

(12) *Increase of wages of 50 per cent. for those in receipt of less than 1 guilder a day, of 25 per cent. for those receiving about 1 guilder.* However difficult it may be to grant this demand, for the lower paid workers give a relatively less return for their wages than the better paid workers, it must be recognised that 6 guilders a week or less in Surabaya is a low wage for people whose standard of living is above the coolie level.

(13) *No discharge without good reasons, and, in the event of such discharge, payment of at least three months' wages.* The question of the period of notice before discharge, or payment of wages for a specified period in lieu of notice, should be regulated by law.

(14) *A yearly gratuity of at least one month's wages.* Where the income of the undertaking permits of it, the yearly gratuity is a good means of binding the worker to the firm, but it should be given as a reward for regular attendance and good work.

(15) *Arbitration in labour disputes.* The time is not considered ripe for this procedure ; the attitude of the workers during the December strike showed that guarantees for its success are wanting.

(16) *Official recognition of the* Sarekat Boeroeh Bengkel Electrisk *as the representative of the workers.* In the case of such communist or communistic unions this would mean the ruin of the industry, which is, moreover, their object.

Special demands for clerks, draughtsmen and assimilated categories :

(17) *Monthly instead of daily wages.* A reasonable demand.

(18) *Increase of salary of 25 per cent.* The salaries of these categories were not included in the enquiry, but a general increase of this kind would be out of the question.

(19) and (20) *A minimum salary of 50 guilders a month and a yearly increase of 5 guilders a month.* A uniform regulation of salaries is recommended.

(21) *Annual leave of 14 days with pay.* This is not customary. Something might be done to meet the employees on this point.

(22) *The demands under (2), (3), (4), (5), (9), (11), (13), (14), and (15) to be granted also to clerks and native foremen.* Reference is made to the comments on these points.

Conclusions and Desiderata

The following is a translation of this part of the Report:

The *conclusions* of the enquiry are:

(1) The Communists prepared and led the strikes in the Surabaya industry with the object of involving other undertakings and services and of extending the strikes from Surabaya westwards until the general strike was realised. This plan failed owing to the measures taken by the public authorities.

(2) The conditions of labour in the industry appear to be on the whole not unfavourable, and were not the cause of the strike.

(3) The ties between employer and worker are too loose, to the disadvantage of the latter and indirectly, owing to the indifference of the worker towards his work, to the disadvantage of the former also. Contact between overseer and worker, such as exists in agriculture, is wanting.

(4) In many workshops the attitude to the workers is a rough one; it is not malevolent or inimical, but it has an undesirable influence on the workers, particularly when it is exploited by agitators. This attitude is in the first place to be attributed to the European overseers, but it is also due to the nature of the industry.

(5) The movement of wages — general rise from 1920 to 1923, followed by a rapid fall — was not irrational. It was however always considerably behind the movement of prices, with the result that the fall in 1924 and especially in 1925 — in which years prices had stopped falling and the price level was even somewhat higher — may have caused some discontent. This discontent was not however the cause of the strike.

(6) It is impossible to express an opinion on the wage level in relation to the workers' needs and the standard of living. The enquiry into 600 cases showed that the smaller half earned wages sufficient for the maintenance of the family; in the case of the other half it is presumed that the wife and/or the other members of the family are also earning in accordance with native custom. The high rents and costs of transport, as well as the cost of drinking water and light, bear heavily on the workers' budget. Better paid and lower paid workers were

found to be alike burdened with debts, apparently as a result of unskilful family budgeting.

(7) The other conditions of work varied very much from one workshop to another; in some cases they were very good, in others there were a number of points on which it was necessary to make observations. These observations did not apply to a particular undertaking, but to different departments in different undertakings and they were rather the exception than the rule. The summary of conditions given in the other parts of the Report, in view of the fact that normal and well-regulated conditions do not call for comment, conveys a much more unfavourable impression than the general situation in the Surabaya mechanical engineering industry deserves.

(8) The housing of the skilled workers — and *a fortiori* of the coolies — is deplorable, although there are naturally good exceptions. The clearance of compound areas and the failure to provide adequate new housing accommodation have resulted in the overcrowding of the town compounds. Many compounds are filthy and unhealthy. These conditions are however rather the fault of the public authorities than of the employers.

(9) As shown both in 1920 and 1925, the weak critical faculty of the native workers, and the difference of race between them and the employers, cause them to come easily under the influence of native agitators and propagandists and to be led to strike.

The enquiry has brought to light the following *desiderata*:

(1) Uniform legislative regulation of the conditions which should govern the discharge of workers who have been in the employment of an employer for a certain period is desirable.

(2) It is desirable that the employers should have a better organised association for the purpose of keeping and collecting data to serve as a basis for a more rational wages policy, for making uniform and where necessary improving other conditions of labour, and for combating rules and practices which are harmful to employers or workers.

(3) Measures for distributing work more evenly over the various seasons of the year should be concerted by the employers.

(4) The rough attitude towards the workers and the occasional use of blows in the workshops should be systematically proceeded against. More should be done to make the workers "senang" and to gain their interest in the undertaking.

(5) The institution of arrangements for the medical observation and treatment of the workers would be in the interest of both parties.

(6) It is desirable that bonuses should be again introduced for regular attendance, in conjunction with a campaign against absenteeism, with arrangements to allow the worker to take a few hours off on Friday at his own expense, and with the supervision where possible of workers absent on account of sickness.

(7) The introduction of pension regulations and, where conditions permit of it, of gratuities at the native New Year for good and regular work, would strengthen the ties between the workers and the undertakings.

(8) Provision of housing accommodation by the employers is to be recommended. The question of the compounds, however, and the improvement of housing conditions should be taken in hand without delay and energetically by the public authorities.

(9) In taking measures for the protection of the workshops against communist penetration, a clear distinction should be made between real agitators and those who have been temporarily misled by communist theories. The latter should be reinstated in employment, in order to prevent them becoming professional communists or desperados from despair and starvation.

The Belgian Emergency Fund[1]

The system of unemployment insurance at present in force in Belgium is based primarily upon voluntary unemployment funds constituted by the parties interested. In almost every instance these funds have been set up by trade unions, all of whose members are required to join the fund.

Those of the funds which comply with the administrative conditions for unemployment insurance laid down by a series of Royal Decrees — and this is almost invariably the case — are supervised and approved by the state, which contributes a subsidy equal to two-thirds of the contributions paid by the members.

Some of these unemployment funds are known as " central funds " (*caisses centrales*), for the reason that the local branches over which their members are distributed all operate under the same regulations and pool their resources. These central funds are under the immediate supervision of the Unemployment and Employment Exchange Service of the Ministry of Industry, Labour, and Social Welfare. The remaining (" autonomous ") funds are local organs, under the supervision of communal institutions for the relief of unemployment. There are at present 128 " autonomous " funds and 33 central funds with 1,243 local branches.

The principal duties of the institutions for unemployment relief voluntarily established by the communes — which, in most cases, now cover several communes acting in concert for the purpose — are (*a*) to distribute the communal subsidies among the autonomous funds and the local branches of the central funds; and (*b*) to serve as local organs for the purposes of government control and administration. In respect of the latter function they receive a state subsidy.

There were in existence on 1 June 1926 83 of these communal institutions for unemployment relief, covering 1,131 of Belgium's 2,688 communes. Indeed, all communes with more than 5,000 inhabitants are affiliated to one of these institutions; only small agricultural communes with very few industrial workers have so far refrained from

[1] This report has been prepared from a study by Mr. Max Gottschalk, Brussels Correspondent of the International Labour Office.

membership. The result is that 97 per cent. of the total number of insured persons live in localities which are affiliated to a communal institution for unemployment relief.

In order to provide in certain cases for the inadequacy of the organisations approved and subsidised by the state, a complementary organisation, known as the " National Emergency Fund ", has been set up.

The National Emergency Fund was established by a Royal Decree dated 30 December 1920, in accordance with a proposal put forward by Mr. Joseph Wauters, Minister of Industry, Labour, and Supplies.

The unemployment funds, which in 1914 had a membership of about 125,000, or barely one-tenth of the total number of industrial workers, had been completely exhausted during the war. A great National Committee for Relief and Food Supply had been established as soon as hostilities broke out, to provide for the needs of unemployed persons and of all members of the population who were reduced to indigence. After the Armistice, an Unemployment Relief Fund was kept up; but the Government soon took measures for the gradual reduction of this system of relief, while it encouraged the reconstitution and development of the pre-war system of unemployment funds.

The measures taken consisted principally in (*a*) the allocation of a state subsidy to the funds, equal to 50 per cent. of the amount of subscriptions received from their members, and (*b*) the payment by the government of an allowance to new members losing their employment before completing the waiting period of six months or a year stipulated by the rules of the funds before the normal benefit could be claimed.

In addition, grants from the Unemployment Relief Fund were gradually withdrawn from unemployed persons who refused to take any personal steps towards providing for the future by joining an unemployment fund. In view of this fact, and of the expansion of the trade union spirit, it is not surprising that, at the end of 1920, the funds had a total membership of over 600,000, or more than four times as many as before the war.

Immediately after the Armistice, more than half the total number of workers were unemployed. The situation then improved rapidly until, in September 1920, only 5.8 per cent. of the total number of insured workers were unemployed. There was then again a change for the worse; and, according to the statistics of the unemployment funds, in October 6.4 per cent., in November 7.2 per cent., and in December 17.4 per cent. of the workers were unemployed. The proportion rose to 32 per cent. in May 1921.

For the purpose of dealing with this situation, the Government still had in hand a balance of 30 million francs remaining from the Unemployment Relief Fund, which made it unnecessary to appeal to Parliament for immediate further credits. This being the case, the Royal Decree of 30 December 1920 sanctioned the existing system, as regards both state subsidies to unemployment funds and payment of extraordinary allowances direct to insured workers who were unemployed and not entitled to benefit from the funds themselves. It also introduced an innovation by setting up a new autonomous organisation called the " National Emergency Fund " to deal with these matters. The rules

under which this Fund operates have been laid down or amended by a number of subsequent Decrees; these rules are now codified in a sole text which appeared in the *Moniteur belge* for 1 August 1926[1].

The National Emergency Fund is an autonomous body under state supervision. It is administered by a Board of Management. In addition to the Chairman, there are three members chosen for their competence in economic questions and their special knowledge of unemployment problems; the interests of employers are represented by three members and those of the workers by three members.

The Board of Management is invested with the necessary powers for the management and administration of the Fund. It has to examine the rules of funds demanding government approval, notifies them of any changes considered necessary, and accords or refuses its sanction as the case may be. It decides, in each particular case, questions of the eligibility of unemployment funds to receive grants from the Fund, including all doubtful cases, and takes the necessary measures for the distribution of the grants. It also supervises the use of the sums so distributed. The duties of the Board of Management further include the engagement, suspension, and dismissal of the staff of the Fund; it decides upon their duties and fixes their salaries (which are paid out of the Fund moneys). The administration of the Fund is thus manifestly quite autonomous.

The Board itself enjoys very great independence. The Minister of Labour and the Minister of Finance, however, have supervisory powers which are exercised through the intermediary of government commissioners. The latter have an unlimited right of supervision over the operations of the Fund. They attend meetings of the Board of Management, and may suspend execution of its decisions if they consider that these are contrary to the interests of the state. In this case they report to their respective Ministers; if these give no ruling within eight days from the date of the meeting of the Board, the decision may be carried out.

The Chairman of the Board of Management may himself suspend execution of any decision of the Board which in his opinion is not in accordance with the provisions of the law or the rules of the Fund. He must in such case notify the competent Minister; if the latter gives no ruling within one month, the decision becomes valid.

The administrative staff of the Emergency Fund is very small indeed. At its inception there were twenty-two persons engaged upon the work; but the number has been progressively reduced, and on 1 January 1926 there were only eight — a manager, a chief accountant, three bookkeepers, two typists, and an auditor.

The National Emergency Fund is financed by state subsidies, and by suscriptions and other voluntary contributions, if any (section 20 of the codified text of the Royal Decrees). In practice, almost the whole of the resources have been derived from the state, with some assistance from the Provinces. Besides the voluntary contributions, there are certain sums which, under the Royal Decrees, have to be reimbursed

[1] Amended by a further Royal Decree of 21 March 1927.

by the subsidised funds and by the communes, for the purpose of ensuring the effective collaboration of these bodies in the supervision of the unemployed. Each subsidised fund has to reimburse 15 per cent. of the amounts paid by the Emergency Fund to its members (section 29 of the codified text), and each commune has to refund 10 per cent. of all expenditure made by the Emergency Fund on behalf of its inhabitants.

The expenditure of the Fund during the period 1921 to 1925 was as follows :

Year	Grants Francs	Working expenses Francs
1921	128,904,094	368,242
1922	43,522,734	312,818
1923	5,902,196	298,291
1924	4,172,017	297,950
1925	7,931,628	227,322

The sum of 30 million francs remaining over from the Unemployment Relief Fund was thus rapidly absorbed ; and, in order to enable the Emergency Fund to continue its work, new and considerable credits had to be placed at its disposal by Parliament in the early months of 1921. The voluntary aid accorded by the Provinces, which in 1921 amounted to 3,460,000 francs, fell to 285,000 francs in 1922, 42,000 francs in 1923, and 32,000 francs in 1924. In 1925 the figure rose to 58,000 francs. It will be remarked that the contribution of the Provinces to the work of the Fund varied with the severity of the unemployment situation. The Provinces preferred to intervene directly in favour of their own unemployed workers by increasing the grants made by the Emergency Fund.

Regarding the sums to be refunded by the approved funds and the communes on the basis noted above, these have been regularly paid, as will be seen from the following figures :

Reimbursements by approved Funds

Year	Amount due Francs	Amount paid Francs
1921	15,282,239.85	5,626,996.84
1922	4,743,042.10	3,609,332.99
1923	515,218.56	4,741,184.60
1924	384,748.49	4,861,299.22
1925	873,989.80	2,865,509.58
Total	21,799,238.80	21,704,323.23

Reimbursements by the Communes

Year	Amount due Francs	Amount paid Francs
1921	12,890,409.37	6,778,201.72
1922	4,352,279.37	3,425,343.03
1923	590,219.55	2,431,864.90
1924	517,304.60	1,613,773.22
1925	732,659.87	2,377,228.51
Total	19,082,872.76	16,626,411.38

Grants from the National Emergency Fund are made, in accordance with the provisions of the codified text of the Royal Decrees, to (*a*) unemployed persons belonging to an approved fund which is not in a position to meet its statutory obligations for reasons which the Board of Management is required to investigate (section 24), and (*b*) for a period of 30 days during the year, which may in exceptional circumstances be extended, to unemployed workers who have exhausted their right to benefit in the fund to which they belong, and who are in need (sections 25 and 26).

At this point the necessity arises for a definition of the term " unemployed worker ".

The Emergency Fund only recognises as such a worker holding a certificate from his employer ; the certificate may be individual or collective, according to the amount of unemployment in the undertaking. These certificates are issued by the employers to their workers free of charge. In very rare instances where employers have refused to give the certificate or to recognise the unemployment as involuntary, the communal institutions for unemployment relief have been authorised to issue the required certificate themselves, after due enquiry.

An employer who makes a false declaration renders himself liable to legal proceedings. Some small employers did in fact issue false unemployment certificates with a view to obtaining additional amounts for their workers, to supplement the meagre wages paid them ; but they were prosecuted and duly sentenced.

Workers who are incapacitated for work as the result of sickness or infirmity are not eligible for grants from the Emergency Fund, even if they are members of an unemployment fund.

There are also certain categories of workers unemployed involuntarily — i.e. as a result of lack of work — who may be excluded from the right to grants from the Emergency Fund, agricultural workers being the principal class affected. The Board of Management of the Emergency Fund has also found it necessary to exclude workers for whom it proved too difficult to check the existence or extent of unemployment — e.g. certain classes of home workers, and of workers whose conditions of work and engagement are of a very special kind. In a decision taken on 9 June 1921 the Board of Management laid it down that grants were to be refused to " all home workers, and in particular to lace-makers, knitters, male and female clothing workers and straw-plaiters, gunsmiths, and in general to women workers who can carry on their occupation while looking after their household. " Nevertheless, provision is made for certain exceptions in favour of funds which propose to apply methods of control that seem adequate to " frustrate fraud ". In particular, it was considered that sufficient guarantee would be afforded by the introduction of individual wage books. This has been done for dockers, lightermen, and certain categories of home workers.

Workers engaged in intermittent industries (sugar refineries, food-preserving works, etc.) are also excluded from the right to Emergency Fund allowances. It was, in fact, inadmissible that workers employed during only part of the year in a seasonal industry, and spending the remainder of their time in an occupation in respect of which they are

not insured against unemployment, should be allowed to register themselves as unemployed and to draw Emergency Fund allowances from the end of one season up to the recommencement of their seasonal occupation.

In order to be eligible for assistance from the Emergency Fund, persons must be either of Belgian nationality or nationals of a country in which Belgians are eligible for similar assistance.

One of the most interesting features of the Belgian Emergency Fund is its attitude towards labour disputes. Allowances from it, in accordance with section 33 of the codified Decrees, are suspended in case of strike or lockout, as well as in case of unemployment directly consequent upon a strike or lockout. It is within the competence of the Board of Management of the Fund to decide what cases come under each of these categories.

The earliest Royal Decrees issued upon the proposal of the Minister of Industry and Labour, Mr. Joseph Wauters, however, allowed certain important exceptions in favour even of workers directly involved in a strike or lockout, who were granted allowances from the Emergency Fund in cases where the dispute had been preceded by recourse to regular conciliation and arbitration procedure in which the employer or employers concerned had refused to take part.

This provision had an excellent effect in preventing collective disputes, thanks to more frequent recourse to conciliation and arbitration in case of disagreement. However, it aroused a certain amount of opposition on the part of the employers, and, upon the proposal of the Minister of Industry and Labour, Mr. Moyersoen, was suppressed by a Royal Decree dated 18 September 1923. When Mr. Joseph Wauters again became Minister of Industry and Labour he judged it desirable to re-establish the provision, but in a somewhat different form ; and he pointed out that the total expenditure under this heading had been an extremely small proportion of the total expenditure of the Emergency Fund : 1,900,000 francs in 1921, 740,000 francs in 1922, and 980,000 francs in 1923.

Accordingly, by a Royal Decree dated 5 May 1926, the provisions at present in force were established. Under this Decree, emergency Fund grants are to be payable : (*a*) when a strike has taken place owing to the introduction, before the failure of conciliation or arbitration procedure has been officially ascertained, of conditions of labour or new wage scales refused by the workers ; (*b*) when a lockout has been declared by the employer without his having recourse to such procedure ; (*c*) when the Conciliation and Arbitration Committee expresses the opinion that the employer's attitude has made conciliation impossible ; and (*d*) when the employer has refused to carry into effect the agreement reached or the provisions of the arbitration award. In all these cases the workers involved are regarded as involuntarily unemployed ; and those among them who belong to an approved unemployment fund are entitled to benefit by Emergency Fund grants, subject to the regulations concerning the distribution of these grants.

The Decree also provides that a penalty, consisting of deprivation during one year of the right to benefit by the foregoing provisions, may

be imposed on workers in the following circumstances : (*a*) if they cause a lockout by making a change in existing working conditions before the failure of conciliation or arbitration procedure has been officially ascertained ; (*b*) if they call a strike under such circumstances ; (*c*) if their attitude, in the opinion of the official Committee, makes conciliation impossible ; (*d*) if they refuse to carry out the agreement reached or the terms of the arbitration award. It will be observed that these conditions correspond precisely with those imposed upon the employers.

It is the duty of the Board of Management of the Emergency Fund to see that these provisions are carried out.

When the Emergency Fund intervenes in favour of the members of an unemployment fund which for sound reasons is not able to meet its statutory obligations, it does so for all the unemployed members of the fund without regard to any personal resources they may have. The insurance system thus remains in force, with this difference that the Emergency Fund is substituted for the defaulting fund in order to meet the latter's obligations. There is also a change in the rate at which allowances are paid. The sums granted by the Emergency Fund may not exceed the following amounts : for an unemployed worker who is the head of a family, or is unmarried, widowed, or divorced, over 25 years of age, and without children, 8 francs per day ; for an unmarried, widowed, or divorced unemployed worker, under 25 years of age and without children, 6 francs per day ; for a married female worker who is not the head of her family, 6 francs per day. These figures do not include supplementary family allowances, which will be dealt with later. In consequence, the rates of benefit due from the unemployment fund are maintained by the Emergency Fund only if they are lower than the figures quoted above.

When the Emergency Fund intervenes, not to take the place of a defaulting fund, but to assist an unemployed worker who has exhausted his right to benefit in the fund of which he is a member, a further consideration comes into play, namely, the condition of need which will justify the grant of assistance. The condition of need is defined by Ministerial Decree issued on the advice of the Board of Management of the Emergency Fund, that at present in force being dated 15 April 1926. This Decree excludes, for example, unemployed workers who are members of a household the other members of which have regular work, or carry on a commercial undertaking of specified size, a relation being fixed between the total number of members of the household and the number of those who are at work ; unemployed persons who own a certain amount of property, etc., are also excluded.

The Emergency Fund also grants allowances to the members of an unemployed worker's family. These amount to 2.50 francs per day for the wife who does the work of the household, 2 francs per day for each child under 14 years of age, and for each child over 14 and under 16 years of age who is attending an educational establishment or trade school, or who by reason of physical incapacity is unable to work. For the purpose of these family allowances, as for the principal unemployment allowance, the criterion of the condition of need is applied

when the case in point is that of a worker who has exhausted his right to statutory benefit from his unemployment fund.

The grant of an Emergency Fund allowance to an unemployed worker who has exhausted his right to ordinary benefit is not continued indefinitely, but only for 30 days per year. At the same time, if severe depression occurs in any particular industry, the Minister, upon the advice of the Board of Management, may prolong this period for the workers employed in that industry. The Ministerial Decree for the prolongation must be renewed each month.

Finally, the Emergency Fund can make loans with a view to making it possible to undertake work which will furnish immediate employment for the unemployed (section 35 of the codified Decrees). This provision has never been taken advantage of. In accordance with its spirit, however, the Board of Management has paid over the allowances which would have been due for some unemployed workers to certain communes which had provided work for these persons and paid them a wage for their work.

The Emergency Fund has also assisted about a thousand lace-makers to start co-operative shops. These workers were members of exhausted unemployment funds, and their condition of unemployment could not have been checked. The Fund made them allowances slightly higher than the usual amount on condition that these sums should be repaid after the sale of the lace. In this manner a sum of 355,000 francs was advanced to three co-operative undertakings set up at Bruges, Turnhout, and Berlaer. At the present time a balance of 87,000 francs remains outstanding, part of which may still be recoverable. This is in any case much less than the Emergency Fund would have paid out in ordinary allowances.

STATISTICS

Employment and Prices

In the tables below are given for various countries the most recent statistics of employment and unemployment and of the cost of living and retail prices in comparison with those for previous dates.

Employment and Unemployment

Table I giving unemployment statistics shows for certain countries the percentage of workers unemployed. In some cases these percentages are based on data compiled by the trade unions in respect of their members, while in other cases they refer to the workers covered by unemployment insurance laws. For some countries for which no such data are available information is given as to the numbers registered at various dates at the employment exchanges as unemployed or the number of unemployed workers who have received assistance. Table II gives index numbers of employment for certain countries.

In the *Review* for July 1924 and later months an outline was given of the methods by which the statistics given in the tables are compiled, together with particulars of the original sources in which they are published.

TABLE I. STATISTICS OF UNEMPLOYMENT

Date (end of month)	Germany					Australia		Belgium			
	Trade unionists				Number unemployed in receipt of benefit	Trade unionists		Unemployment insurance societies			
	Wholly unemployed		Partially unemployed			Number unemployed	Per cent.	Wholly unemployed		Partially unemployed	
	Number	Per cent.	Number	Per cent.				Number	Per cent.	Number	Per cent.
1926											
Jan.	815,434	22.6	818,637	22.6	2,030,646	•	•	16,159	2.7	32,017	5.4
Feb.	786,263	22.0	771,405	21.6	2,055,928	•	•	9,616	1.6	18,209	3.1
March	727,312	21.4	736,649	21.7	1,942,011	34,161	8.2	8,489	1.4	16,573	2.8
April	655,537	18.6	673,993	19.1	1,781,152	•	•	7,395	1.2	11,803	2.0
May	639,751	18.1	641,780	18.2	1,744,126	•	•	6,075	1.1	12,643	2.1
June	627,196	18.1	591,536	17.1	1,740,754	24,920	6.7	5,200	0.9	13,148	2.2
July	599,617	17.7	563,823	16.6	1,652,281	•	•	5,158	0.9	10,233	1.7
Aug.	567,541	16.7	511,685	15.0	1,548,138	•	•	7,268	1.2	16,530	2.8
Sept.	513,864	15.2	427,380	12.7	1,394,062	32,871	7.6	6,818	1.1	14,821	2.5
Oct.	476,952	14.2	343,303	10.2	1,308,293	•	•	8,088	1.4	13,295	2.2
Nov.	484,978	14.2	284,774	8.3	1,369,768	•	•	8,217	1.4	14,907	2.5
Dec.	572,653	16.7	249,628	7.3	1,748,597	25,351	5.7	15,804	2.6	17,889	3.0
1927											
Jan.	585,687	16.5	234,368	6.6	1,827,200	•	•	15,920	2.6	31,288	5.1
Feb.	559,621	15.5	210,724	5.8	1,695,515	•	•	13,856	2.3[1]	22,321	3.6
March	420,550	11.5	160,080	4.4	1,121,150	—	—	11,294[1]	1.8[1]	18,888[1]	3.1[1]
April	326,786	8.9	136,338	3.7	871,453	•	•	—	—	—	—
Number on which latest percentages are based	3,666,995				•	441,560		613,532			

[1] Provisional figures.

The sign • signifies "no figures published". The sign — signifies "figures not yet received"

TABLE I *(cont.)*

Date (end of month)	Austria	Canada		Denmark		Estonia	Finland	France
	Compulsory insurance	Trade unionists		Trade union unemployment funds				
	Number unemployed in receipt of benefit	Number unemployed	Per cent.	Number unemployed	Per cent.	Number unemployed remaining on live register	Number of unemployed registered	Number unemployed in receipt of benefit
1926								
Jan.	231,361	11,906[1]	8.1	81,869	29.8	3,543	3,832	547
Feb.	228,763	11,993[1]	8.1	74,700	27.3	2,444	3,462	718
March	202,394	11,069	7.3	58,014	21.2	1,916	2,222	543
April	173,115	11,093	7.3	44,983	16.5	2,249	1,961	442
May	154,821	7,442	4.9	40,302	14.7	1,839	1,273	386
June	150,981	5,965	4.1	42,993	15.6	1,051	924	489
July	152,495	3,226[1]	2.3	46,191	16.8	893	949	342
Aug.	151,054	3,384[1]	2.5	46,117	16.8	731	1,212	369
Sept.	148,111	4,837	3.3	44,677	16.3	811	1,325	335
Oct.	151,183	3,929[1]	2.6	50,388	18.3	2,309	1,813	429
Nov.	168,757	7,032[1]	4.7	61,467	22.4	4,157	2,330	571
Dec.	205,350	9,349	5.9	88,854	32.2	3,807	2,172	17,178
1927								
Jan.	235,464	9,748	6.4	87,100[1]	31.4	4,481	3,633	56,275
Feb.	244,257	10,596	6.5	87,100[1]	31,7	4,734	3,029	80,941
March	208,346	—	5.7	72,900[1]	26.5	—	2,104	70,381
April	181,175	—	—	64,800[1]	23.6	—	—	58,462
Number on which latest percentages are based	•	162,042		274,673		•	•	•

TABLE I *(cont.)*

Date (end of month)	Great Britain and Northern Ireland				Hungary		Irish Free State		Italy	
	Trade unionists		Compulsory insurance		Trade unionists		Compulsory insurance		Number of unemployed registered	
	Number unemployed	Per cent.	Number unemployed	Per cent.	Number unemployed	Per cent.	Number unemployed	Per cent.	Wholly unempl.	Partially unempl.
1926										
Jan.	103,051	10.6	1,317,535	11.0	28,378	17.4	38,161	15.0	156,139	9,284
Feb.	101,870	10.4	1,247,823	10.4	29,135	18.7	38,670	15.2	125,803	8,016
March	99,271	10.1	1,171,136	9.8	29,218	19.1	34,331	13.5	109,471	8,333
April	•	10.0	1,093,829	9.1	28,776	18.8	32,935	13.0	98,216	6,793
May	109,947	13.2	1,719,369	14.3	27,598	18.5	32,668	12.8	98,490	8,600
June	107,597	12.9	1,751,133	14.6	25,558	16.7	31,248	12.3	83,264	6,650
July	108,030	13.2	1,737,260	14.6	24,041	15.7	27,740	11.3	79,678	26,756
Aug.	110,520	13.3	1,684,507	14.2	22,756	15.0	25,390	10.3	83,090	26,634
Sept.	112,782	13.6	1,648,322	13.9	19,849	13.1	25,063	10.2	89,434	14,519
Oct.	112,105	13.6	1,636,886	13.6	18,680	12.4	25,499	10.4	112,922	10,839
Nov.	108,202	13.2	1,630,142	13.5	18,576	12.3	26,984	11.0	148,821	6,618
Dec.	97,671	12.2	1,431,840	11.9	20,712	13.0	27,014	11.0	181,493	12,216
1927										
Jan.	•	•	1,451,103	1.21	20,420	13.4	29,046	11.8	225,346	63,716
Feb.	•	•	1,315,444	10.9	19,542	12.8	28,704	11.7	259,059	53,113
March	•	•	1,187,782	9.9	15,978	11.8	27,105	11.0	227,947	61,599
April	•	•	1,133,090	9.4	17,120	11.1	25,939	10.5	—	—
Number on which latest percentages are based	801,878		12,041,000		154,200[1]		246,134		•	

[1] Approximate figures. [2] Provisional figures.
The sign • signifies "no figures published". The sign — signifies "figures not yet received".

TABLE I (*cont.*)

Date (end of month)	Latvia	Norway		New Zealand		Netherlands	
	Number unemployed remaining on live register	Trade unionists (10 unions)		Trade unionists		Unemployment insurance societies	
		Number unemployed	Per cent.	Number unemployed	Per cent.	Number unemployed	Per cent.
1926							
Jan.	4,990	9,066	25.5	•	•	49,633	17.7
Feb.	4,702	8,923	25.0	2,357	5.0	28,999	10.5
March	3,659	9,237	25.9	•	•	22,338	7.9
April	2,000	9,212	26.0	•	•	18,414	6.5
May	1,383	8,316	23.7	3,049	6.6	17,904	6.3
June	936	7,751	22.1	•	•	16,983	5.9
July	722	7,137	20.4	•	•	19,683	6.9
Aug.	897	7,462	21.4	3,912	8.3	20,805	7.2
Sept.	932	7,719	22.3	•	•	20,695	7.2
Oct.	2,430	8,425	24.4	•	•	21,341	7.4
Nov.	5,149	—	25.0	3,712	6.7	25,899	8.9
Dec.	5,234	—	29.6	•	•	35,689	12.1
1927							
Jan.	5,026	—	30.2	•	•	45,658	15.6
Feb.	4,596	—	31.1	4,222	9.4	24,027[1]	11.7[1]
March	4,028	—	—	•	•	—	—
April	2,687	—	—	•	•	—	—
Number on which latest percentages are based	•	34,459		45,028		289,777[1]	

TABLE I (*cont.*)

Date (end of month)	Poland	Russia	Sweden		Switzerland		Czechoslovakia	
	Number unemployed registered	Number unemployed remaining on live register	Trade unionists		Unemployment Funds		Trade union insurance funds	
			Number unemployed	Per cent.	Per cent. unemployed		Number unemployed in receipt of benefit	Per cent.
					Wholly	Partially		
1926								
Jan.	359,810	988,000	34,601	15.7	•	•	22,738	2.1
Feb.	358,430	1,005,600	32,695	14.8	•	•	25,333	2.3
March	345,010	1,056,400	31,712	14.7	2.7	2.7	27,535	2.5
April	320,520	1,070,900	29,220	12.3	•	•	30,056	2.7
May	303,720	1,114,200	22,413	9.9	•	•	33,670	3.0
June	288,510	1,065,500	22,715	9.6	2.4	3.7	40,034	3.4
July	263,540	1,030,100	20,206	8.6	•	•	46,052	4.1
Aug.	241,790	1,023,700	19,511	8.3	•	•	46,129	4.0
Sept.	213,690	1,070,990	22,114	9.1	2.8	4.5	42,601	3.7
Oct.	196,586	1,163,400	28,390	11.4	•	•	35,948	3.1
Nov.	200,570	1,254,300	33,193	13.0	•	•	29,020	2.5
Dec.	236,060	1,289,600	47,614	19.1	5.6	4.6	29,295	2.5
1927								
Jan.	251,702	—	39,344	16.2	•	•	33,279	2.8
Feb.	212,948	—	39,772	15.5	•	•	31,431	2.7
March	208,267	—	36,103	14.1	2.8	3.0	—	—
April	195,363	—	—	—	•	•	—	—
Number on which latest percentages are based	•	•	256,384		226,882		1,159,667	

[1] Provisional figures.

The sign • signifies " no figures published ". The sign — signifies " figures not yet received"

TABLE II. STATISTICS OF EMPLOYMENT

Date (end of month)	Germany[1]	Canada[1]	Estonia	United States	Switzerland
	Index number of employment				
	Membership of sickness funds in Dec. 1921=100	Number employed on 17 Jan. 1920=100	Number employed in preceding month=100	Average number employed in 1923=100	Number employed in Sept. 1924=100
1926					
Jan.	93.4	90.7	•	92.3	•
Feb.	93.4	91.5	•	93.3	•
March	94.3	91.4	•	93.7	95.2
April	97.7	94.3	•	92.8	•
May	98.8	101.0	•	91.7	•
June	98.9	103.7	•	91.3	96.5
July	99.2	104.2	•	89.8	•
Aug.	99.8	104.9	•	90.7	•
Sept.	100.4	105.2	•	92.2	95.3
Oct.	101.2	102.8	•	92.5	•
Nov.	101.2	101.1	•	91.4	•
Dec.	96.4	94.8	•	90,9	93.6
1927					
Jan.	95.2	95.4	100.0	89.4	•
Feb.	96.5	96.3	100.4	91.0	•
March	102.2	96.2	103.9	91.4	94.3
April	—	—	—	—	•
Number of persons on which latest figures are based	13,946,923	795,727	29,177	3,099,238	180,176

[1] The figures relate to the 1st of the following month.

The sign • signifies "no figures published". The sign — signifies "figures not yet received".

Cost of Living and Retail Prices

Tables I to V give for a number of countries index numbers of the cost of living, food, clothing, heating and lighting, and rent. The sources and methods of compilation of the statistics are given in the *Review* for July 1924 and later months.

Hungary : *Magyar Statisztikai Szemle.*

From January 1927 the price index numbers are calculated on the basis of the gold value of the pengö.

Russia.

The Central Bureau of Labour Statistics is now publishing a new series of cost-of-living index numbers, calculated retrospectively as from 1 January 1926. There are in future two official index numbers : (1) an index number based exclusively on the prices charged by ordinary traders, co-operative societies and state undertakings being left out of account; (2) a weighted index number based on the prices of ordinary traders, co-operative societies, and state undertakings, taking into account the relative importance of each of these categories of distributors. The second of these series is given in the tables below.

Separate index numbers are no longer calculated for "clothing and boots and shoes" and "heating and lighting". The general index number includes these items, and also rent, which had not previously been included.

TABLE I. COST-OF-LIVING INDEX NUMBERS

(Base, as far as possible, July 1914 = 100)

Country	South Africa (Union)	Germany	Australia	Austria [1]	Belgium [2]	Bulgaria	Canada	Chile [3]	Denmark	Danzig	Egypt
Towns and localities	9	72	6	Vienna	59	12	60	Chile	100	Danzig	Cairo
1926 April	131	140	*	98	140	2726	152	179	*	134	162
May	132	140	*	97	147	2888	150	181	*	133	161
June	131	140	162	99	155	2793	150	183	*	133	159
July	130	142	*	98	174	2790	150	190	184	137	159
Aug.	130	142	*	99	182	2712	149	192	*	135	161
Sept.	130	142	159	99	179	2677	148	187	*	135	160
Oct.	131	142	*	99	188	2662	150	186	*	135	161
Nov.	131	144	*	99	196	2693	151	184	*	136	156
Dec.	129	144	—	100	199	2672	152	182	*	139	156
1927 Jan.	130	145	*	101	202	2659	151	176	181	136	155
Feb.	130	145	*	100	204	—	150	176	*	136	156
Mar.	131	145	—	100	200	—	148	175	*	136	155
April	—	146	*	100	199	—	—	—	*	135	—

Country	Estonia [4]	United States [3]	Finland	France	Great Britain	Greece	Hungary [5]	India	Irish Free State	Italy	Latvia	Lithuania [3]
Towns and localities	Tallinn	32	21	Paris	630	Athens	Budapest	Bombay	105	Milan	Riga	84
1926 April	136	*	1163	*	167	1731	14,512	153	180	642	117	140
May	136	*	1159	*	168	1741	14,623	155	*	652	119	141
June	136	175	1175	485	170	1791	14,704	157	*	650	119	141
July	136	*	1183	*	170	1808	14,823	155	182	649	118	140
Aug.	135	*	1213	*	172	1818	14,538	155	*	652	115	139
Sept.	130	*	1203	539	174	1833	14,593	155	*	647	112	139
Oct.	129	*	1197	*	179	1862	14,883	154	189	672	112	139
Nov	129	*	1193	*	179	1895	15,293	156	*	657	111	141
Dec.	130	176	1197	545	175	1889	15,204	156	*	657	114	143
1927 Jan.	132	*	1187	*	172	—	106 [6]	155	182	655	—	142
Feb.	132	*	1189	*	171	—	108	155	*	667	—	141
March	130	*	1183	524	165	—	108	153	*	663	—	143
April	131	*	1173	*	164	—	111	153	171	—	—	—

Country	Luxemburg	Norway	New Zealand	Netherlands [7]	Peru [3]	Poland	Rumania	Russia [3]	Sweden	Switzerland	Czechoslovakia
Towns and localities	Luxemburg	31	4	Amsterdam	Lima	Warsaw	Whole country	229	49	33	Prague
1926 April	546	*	*	*	193	177	3327	209	*	162	685
May	578	*	163	*	195	185	3370	216	*	162	692
June	609	221	*	171	197	184	3436	212	172	162	693
July	686	*	*	*	194	178	3340	208	*	162	718
Aug.	688	*	163	*	195	182	3455	207	*	161	722
Sept.	711	217	*	164	190	189	3460	203	171	161	722
Oct.	727	*	*	*	188	193	3600	204	*	161	726
Nov	734	*	162	*	189	197	3700	208	*	161	734
Dec.	746	213	*	168	189	199	3760	207	171	161	735
1927 Jan.	756	210	*	*	189	202	3661	210	*	160	741
Feb.	758	208	162	*	193	201	3758	—	*	160	740
March	761	203	*	166	187	200	3814	—	170	159	738
April	766	201	*	*	189	203	—	—	*	158	—

[1] 1925 = 100. [2] 1921 = 100. [3] 1913 = 100. [4] 1922 = 100. [5] 1913 = 1. [6] New series in pengö. [7] 1911-1913 = 100. The sign * signifies "no figures published". The sign — signifies "figures not yet received".

TABLE II. FOOD INDEX NUMBERS

(Base, as far as possible, July 1914 = 100)

Country	South Africa (Union)	Germany	Australia	Austria [1]	Belgium [2]	Bulgaria	Canada	Denmark	Egypt	Spain	Estonia [3]
Towns and localities	9	72	30	Vienna	59	12	60	100	Cairo	Madrid	Tallinn
1926 April	119	142	*	96	142	2731	152	*	161	187	139
May	119	142	*	95	152	2909	149	*	160	183	139
June	118	143	162	98	161	2808	149	*	157	183	139
July	117	145	*	97	185	2803	150	159	158	186	139
Aug.	117	146	*	98	193	2720	147	*	159	178	138
Sept.	117	150	155	98	186	2680	147	*	157	187	128
Oct.	120	145	*	98	197	2662	148	*	160	190	127
Nov.	119	148	*	99	206	2693	151	*	157	191	127
Dec.	117	150	158	100	208	2669	153	*	154	193	128
1927 Jan.	116	151	*	100	208	2657	151	156	153	196	131
Feb.	117	152	*	100	212	—	149	*	154	190	132
March	118	151	—	99	205	—	146	*	154	194	129
April	—	150	*	97	204	—	—	*	—	196	130

Country	United States	Finland	France	Great Britain	Greece	Hungary [4]	India	Irish Free State	Italy
Towns and localities	51	21	Paris	630	Athens	Budapest	Bombay	105	Milan
1926 April	159	1085	503	158	1821	16,322	150	175	645
May	157	1078	522	158	1817	16,122	152	*	664
June	156	1090	544	161	1870	16,298	155	*	657
July	153	1105	574	161	1849	16,546	153	174	654
Aug.	152	1153	587	162	1871	15,997	152	*	660
Sept.	155	1137	590	163	1890	16,189	153	*	652
Oct.	156	1126	624	169	1933	16,431	152	178	654
Nov.	158	1114	628	169	1986	16,783	154	*	630
Dec.	158	1110	599	167	1973	16,622	155	*	631
1927 Jan.	156	1092	592	164	—	117 [5]	152	178	625
Feb.	152	1095	585	162	—	121	152	*	642
March	150	1086	581	155	—	123	151	*	635
April	—	1069	580	154	—	128	151	165	617

Country	Latvia	Norway	New Zealand	Peru [6]	Poland	Sweden	Switzerland	Czechoslovakia
Towns and localities	Riga	31	4	Lima	Warsaw	49	33	Prague
1926 April	101	198	151	166	204	157	161	761
May	103	195	151	169	214	156	159	774
June	103	194	151	172	213	156	159	775
July	103	198	149	172	207	156	159	808
Aug.	97	196	149	174	213	155	157	817
Sept.	94	193	148	167	227	156	158	816
Oct.	92	191	147	164	232	155	160	823
Nov.	91	186	146	166	244	155	159	837
Dec.	94	184	149	167	247	155	159	840
1927 Jan.	—	180	148	165	247	153	158	849
Feb.	—	177	146	173	248	150	157	848
March	—	173	145	169	243	149	156	844
April	—	169	—	171	245	146	156	—

[1] 1925 = 100. 1921 = 100. [3] 1922 = 100. [4] 1913 = 1. [5] New series in pengö. [6] 1913 = 100
The sign * signifies " no figures published ". The sign — signifies " figures not yet received ".

TABLES III TO V. INDEX NUMBERS OF CLOTHING, HEATING AND LIGHTING, AND RENT

Country	Germany	Austria[1]	Belgium[2]	Canada	Denmark	Spain	Estonia[3]	United States	Finland	France	Great Britain	Hungary[4]	India	Irish Free State	Italy	Latvia	Norway	New Zealand	Poland		Sweden	Switzerland	Czechoslovakia
Towns and localities	72	Vienna	59	60	100	Madrid	Tallinn	32	21	Paris	630	Budapest	Bombay	105	Milan	Riga	31	4	Warsaw		49	33	Prague
TABLE III. CLOTHING INDEX NUMBERS *(Base, as far as possible, July 1914 = 100)*																							
1926 April	167	99	145	•	•	•	119	•	1049	•	223	18,502	170	205	702	122	•	•	251		•	172	994
May	165	99	150	•	•	•	119	•	1049	•	223	18,273	162	•	691	122	•	156	272		•	172	994
June	164	99	155	•	•	•	118	168	1047	577	220	18,273	160	•	692	122	207	•	272		187	172	994
July	163	99	166	•	210	•	118	•	1044	•	220	18,273	160	205	692	122	•	•	254		•	172	994
Aug.	161	99	172	•	•	•	118	•	1039	•	220	18,273	160	•	692	122	•	154	254		•	172	994
Sept.	160	98	178	•	•	•	118	•	1039	635	220	17,915	159	•	692	122	200	•	256		184	172	994
Oct.	160	98	186	•	•	•	118	•	1037	•	218	17,915	156	205	711	122	•	•	256		•	166	982
Nov.	158	98	191	•	•	•	118	•	1035	•	218	17,915	148	•	709	122	•	154	256		•	166	982
Dec.	158	98	199	•	•	•	118	167	1035	616	218	17,915	143	•	709	122	191	•	256		182	166	982
1927 Jan.	157	98	203	•	196	•	116	•	1035	•	215	124[5]	148	—	705	—	•	•	256		•	166	975
Feb.	156	97	207	•	•	•	116	•	1035	•	215	124	152	•	705	—	•	152	252		•	166	975
Mar.	156	97	210	•	•	•	116	•	1035	565	215	124	143	•	705	—	176	•	262		180	166	975
April	156	97	212	•	•	•	116	•	1035	•	215	124	—	193	705	—	•	•	262		•	161	—
TABLE IV. HEATING AND LIGHTING INDEX NUMBERS *(Base, as far as possible, July 1914 = 100)*																							
1926 April	142	99	116	180	•	169	92	•	1248	•	185	17,674	164	195	505	367	•	•	160		170	146	805
May	140	99	118	177	•	171	92	•	1250	•	190	17,674	164	•	505	367	•	176	161		167	145	805
June	140	97	130	176	•	176	92	181	1254	452	195	17,590	164	•	512	367	201	•	160		168	145	805
July	141	99	144	175	215	177	88	•	1238	•	200	17,506	164	234	512	367	•	•	158		167	145	805
Aug.	141	100	163	175	•	174	92	•	1242	•	215	17,506	164	•	512	367	•	177	176		166	144	805
Sept.	143	100	168	176	•	177	95	•	1257	541	230	17,506	164	•	512	367	208	•	182		166	144	810
Oct.	144	103	179	176	•	172	95	•	1276	•	255	18,933	164	203	565	358	•	•	196		170	145	814
Nov.	144	105	197	177	•	182	94	•	1349	•	250	19,394	166	•	565	359	•	177	188		188	146	814
Dec.	144	105	206	176	•	189	96	188	1389	577	215	19,394	166	•	565	410	237	•	188		186	146	814
1927 Jan.	145	107	204	177	230	180	100	•	1404	•	210	131[5]	166	—	627	—	•	•	192		184	146	814
Feb.	145	106	197	177	•	179	98	•	1406	•	203	129	166	•	661	—	•	177	189		181	144	814
Mar.	145	106	189	—	•	179	98	•	1408	570	190	126	166	•	661	—	199	•	187		181	144	814
April	143	106	184	—	•	192	97	•	1409	•	185	125	—	189	661	—	•	•	187		180	143	—
TABLE V. RENT INDEX NUMBERS *(Base, as far as possible, July 1914 = 100)*																							
1926 April	97	105	153	142	•	•	175	•	1266	•	149	6,960	172	127	477	80	•	•	76		•	163	256
May	99	109	154	143	•	•	175	•	1266	•	149	7,975	172	•	477	80	•	178	76		•	167	256
June	100	118	155	143	•	•	175	165	1334	250	150	7,975	172	•	477	80	179	•	76		188	167	256
July	104	118	158	143	185	•	175	•	1334	•	150	7,975	172	127	477	80	•	•	76		•	167	256
Aug.	105	118	162	142	•	•	175	•	1334	•	150	7,975	172	•	477	80	•	182	76		•	167	256
Sept.	105	118	164	142	•	•	175	•	1334	250	150	7,975	172	•	477	70	179	•	76		188	167	256
Oct.	105	118	165	142	•	•	175	•	1334	•	150	7,975	172	127	638	78	•	•	76		•	167	256
Nov.	105	118	166	142	•	•	175	•	1334	•	150	8,700	172	•	638	78	•	182	76		•	167	256
Dec.	105	118	167	142	•	•	175	164	1334	250	151	8,700	172	•	638	78	179	•	76		188	167	256
1927 Jan.	105	118	180	142	185	•	175	•	1334	•	151	60[5]	172	—	638	—	•	•	92[6]		•	167	261
Feb.	105	121	181	142	•	•	175	•	1334	•	151	60	172	•	638	—	•	185	92		•	167	261
Mar.	105	121	182	—	•	•	175	•	1334	250	151	60	172	•	638	—	181	•	92		184	167	261
April	115	121	182	—	•	•	175	•	1334	•	151	60	—	127	638	—	—	•	98		•	167	—

[1] 1925 = 100. [2] 1921 = 100. [3] 1922 = 100. [4] 1913 = 1. [5] New series in pengö. [6] New series. The sign • signifies "no figures published". The sign — signifies "figures not yet received".

Wage Rates and Retail Prices in Various Cities

Tables I and II below, giving wage and price statistics in various cities at 1 March 1926 or the nearest date for which figures are available, are in continuation of corresponding tables published in the May number of the *Review*[1] which gave data generally for 1 February 1926. Information is given in the tables for 20 cities for wages and 18 for prices, the figures generally having been supplied to the International Labour Office by the Department of the Central Government or of the Municipality which compiles these data. In certain cases figures have been taken from official publications.

Table I gives money wages, generally based on rates fixed by collective agreements, of typical categories of workers in the building, engineering, furniture-making, and printing and bookbinding industries. The figures are calculated on the basis of 48 hours' work, generally at ordinary time rates. So far as information is available, the amounts of cost-of-living bonuses and family allowances paid in certain cities are included. It should be pointed out that the data are not in all cases strictly comparable, as for some cities for which minimum rates are given the rates actually paid are somewhat higher. In the other cases the figures given are either the actual rates, or minimum rates which differ to a very small extent from the actual rates.

Table II gives the average retail prices of various articles of food which are of importance in the consumption of wage earners and their families.

[1] *International Labour Review*, Vol. XV, No. 5, May 1927, pp. 761-762.

TABLE I. MONEY WAGES CALCULATED ON THE BASIS OF 48 HOURS' WORK AT ORDINARY TIME RATES AT 1 MARCH 1927

Industry and occupation	Amsterdam	Berlin	Brussels[1]	Copenhagen[2]	Dublin[2]	Lodz	London	Madrid	Milan	Ottawa	Paris	Philadelphia[4]	Prague[2]	Riga	Rome	Stockholm[5]	Sydney[6]	Tallinn[8]	Vienna	Warsaw
Building Industry:	Gulden	R. Mks.	Francs	Kroner	s. d.	Zloty	s. d.	Pesetas	Lire	Dollars	Francs	Dollars	Koruny	Lats	Lire	Kronor	s. d.	E. Mks.	Schillinge	Zloty
Bricklayers or masons	38.40	60.48	176.40	117.60	90 0	48.00	85 0	66.00	192.00	48.00	240.00	78.00	240.00	40.80	184.80	76.80	123 4	1,680	68.16	51.84
Carpenters	38.40	60.96	198.00	101.76	88 0	48.00	85 0	78.00	201.60	36.00	240.00	60.00	252.50	31.32	184.80	76.80	131 11	1,614	72.96	50.40
Joiners	38.40	64.80	220.80	87.84	88 0	—	85 0	90.00	187.20	36.00	228.00	60.00	—	30.30	165.60	76.80	—	2,670	55.68	—
Plumbers	38.40	60.00	192.00	90.72	89 0	—	85 0	75.00	—	40.80	240.00	55.20	—	—	163.20	66.24	127 8	—	55.10	—
Painters (general)	36.00	57.60	162.00	92.16	86 0	—	81 0	78.00	202.50	31.20	240.00	48.00	277.50	40.02	235.20	81.60	118 0	—	76.80	51.36
Labourers (general)	31.20	46.08	129.60	86.40	64 0	24.00	65 0	42.00	124.80	19.20	180.00	40.80	180.00	22.98	139.20	69.60	113 0	912	52.80	31.68
Engineering Trades:																				
Fitters	32.16	—	190.56	86.88	75 1	36.96	62 2	72.00	166.86	28.80	225.60	48.00	245.00	31.08	165.60	—	114 6	—	—	40.80
Ironmoulders (hand)	32.16	—	197.28	99.84	75 1	36.96	62 2	72.00	177.90	28.32	228.00	46.50	290.00	30.96	165.60	—	122 9	1,614	—	40.80
Patternmakers	32.16	—	258.24	93.60	77 1	36.96	66 10	90.00	—	33.60	288.00	48.00	317.50	36.00	—	—	123 6	1,614	—	40.80
Turners	32.16	—	202.08	—	75 1	36.96	62 2	78.00	179.40	28.80	235.20	38.40	245.00	26.94	153.60	—	114 6	1,572	53.30	40.80
Labourers	25.68	31.20	144.48	66.24	55 2	23.04	43 3	42.00	136.20	19.20	153.60	31.20	155 00	19.02	112.80	—	96 0	1,188	35.52	26.40
Furniture Trades:																				
Cabinet-makers	32.64	52.32	244.80	79.20	88 0	—	84 0	72.00	200.16	27.60	288.00	—	290.00	33.06	228.00	57.60	111 0	1,740	52.80	—
Labourers	—	43.68	—	—	60 0	—	—	42.00	141.60	16.80	216.00	—	150.00	20.22	122.40	51.84	—	1,836	35.04	—
Printing and Bookbinding Trades:																				
Hand compositors (book and job)	35.04	48.00	254.00	91.68	84 0	76.80	89 0	73.50	262.80	35.20	288.00	43.20	—	48.60	188.00	60.55	122 2	2,628	62.50	114.24
Machine " "	39.36	57.60	266.00	91.68	84 0	109.44	96 0	81.00	283.20	35.20	306.00	45.17	285.00	67.80	235.00	66.40	135 3[7]	3,588	74.60	159.84
Machine minders	35.04	48.00	254.00	86.88	84 0	75.84	89 0	88.50	259.26	35.20	—	42.00	—	55.98	188.00	60.55	122 2	2,832	62.50	114.24
Bookbinders	35.04	44.16	256.00	89.28	84 0	75.84	80 0	70.50	262.80	34.00	—	41.00	212.50	49.74	175.00	55.20	103 8	2,094	49.25	—
Labourers	28.08	42.00	—	69.60	55 6	25.92	71 0[8]	48.00	176.82	—	—	—	187.50	27.64	157.00	49.60	—	1,608	43.50	57.12

[1] Figures for 15 March. [2] Figures for 1 January. [3] Warehouse porters. [4] Figures for 15 May 1926, except those for the engineering trades, which are for 1 October 1925.
[5] For certain occupations the figures are minimum rates fixed by collective agreements and skilled workers are frequently paid at higher rates. [6] Figures for 30 June 1926.
[7] Rates for linotype operators. [8] Figures for 1 February.

TABLE II. AVERAGE RETAIL PRICES[1] OF CERTAIN ARTICLES OF FOOD AT 1 MARCH 1927

Commodity	Amsterdam	Berlin	Brussels[2]	Lodz	London	Madrid	Milan	Oslo	Ottawa	Paris	Philadelphia[3]	Prague	Riga	Rome	Stockholm	Tallinn	Vienna[2]	Warsaw
	Gulden	R. Mks.	Francs	Zloty	Pence	Pesetas	Lire	Kroner	Cents	Francs	Cents	Koruny	Lats	Lire	Kronor	R. Mks.	Schillings	Zloty
Bread																		
White	0.24	0.74	2.60	—	5.7	0.65	2.57	0.86	17.0	2.20	20.9	3.28	0.72	2.65	0.76	48.8	1.65	—
Black or rye	0.18	0.43	2.55	0.65	—	—	—	0.45	—	—	—	2.98	0.30	—	0.64	19.5	0.63	0.66
Flour (wheaten)	0.28	0.58	3.64	0.86	6.0	0.80	2.94	0.47	12.8	3.15	11.9	4.34	0.69	3.00	0.46	40.3	0.78	0.95
Butter																		
Fresh	2.43	4.10	28.89	7.34	47.9	5.00	22.97	3.85	98.8	28.25	137.8	26.58	3.42	22.00	—	290.1	6.80	8.20
Salt	—	3.80	27.75	—	47.9	3.20	—	—	—	—	—	—	3.20	11.00	3.46	232.0	—	—
Margarine	1.20	1.86	11.62	—	15.4	6.00	11.37	1.52	—	10.40	67.7	15.40	2.08	15.00	1.51	—	2.80	—
Beef (home produce)																		
Ribs	1.40	2.20	21.80	2.60	40.6	5.60	13.84	2.63	52.7	21.50	79.8	15.76	0.98	10.50	2.04	103.8	3.20	2.71
Thin flank	1.10		11.00		17.4	4.30	8.10	2.13	24.7	9.90	57 6	13.40		8.50	1.59	65.4		
Beef (chilled or frozen)																		
Ribs	1.10	1.40	14.25	—	22.3	3.40	7.72	—	—	13.50	—	—	—	11.00	—	62.3[4]	2.60	—
Thin flank	0.80		7.00	—	10.4	1.60	2.80	—	—	6.50	—	—	—	4.00	—	54.5[4]		
Mutton (home produce)																		
Leg	2.20	2.60	17.00	2.60	39.7	4.00	—	2.67	56.9	21.50	86.9	13.35	0.94	—	2.64	109.9	3.20	2.54
Breast	1.20	2.20	10.75		19.2	3.50	—	2.34	—	8.75	—			—	—	97.7		
Mutton (frozen)																		
Leg	—	—	13.00	—	26.0	—	—	1.33	—	16.70	—	—	—	—	—	112.3[5]	—	—
Breast	—	—	4.50	—	10.6	—	—		—	4.20	—	—	—	—	—	109.9[5]	—	—
Bacon	1.00	2.90	17.24	3.70	36.6	3.50	8.15	—	88.2	14.55	103.6	—	2.10	8.50	2.15	123.3	2.80	3.88
Potatoes	0.08	0.14	1.22	0.17	2.7	0.35	1.24	0.14	5.9	1.60	9.7	1.45	0.11	1.05	0.14	4.6	0.28	0.24
Sugar (white granulated)	0.54	0.76	4.24	1.40	8.4	1.60	7.01	0.82	17.2	5.00	15.2	6.01	0.75	7.30	0.66	57.3	1.10	1.49
Coffee	1.65	6.80	23.47	12.00	—	9.00	35.21	3.54	136.1	25.00	97.0	45.25	7.98	33.00	3.70	390.7	10.00	10.81
Coffee substitute	—	0.52	—	2.50	—	3.00	15.20	—	—	7.30	—	4.15	1.28	13.33	1.60	97.7	1.50	2.59
Tea	3.00	9.60	35.67	23.50	52.9	18.00	—	—	157.7	47.00	153.5	—	11.69	58.00	—	586.1	16.00	28.80
Cheese	1.30	1.60	—	1.78	27.6	5.50	25.63	0.77	71.7	17.30	88.2	6.25	1.89	17.00	1.78	195.4	5.40	2.02
Milk (unskimmed)	0.17	0.31	1.80	0.45	6.2	0.80	1.70	0.30	9.7	1.60	11.5	2.15	0.22	1.80	0.24	16.3	0.52	0.52
Eggs (not newlaid or preserved)	0.08	0.14	0.81	0.19	2.2	0.25	0.73	0.10	4.6	0.80	3.9	0.72	—	0.65	0.13	10.5	0.16	0.21
Rice	0 25	0.68	5.73	1.21	6.4	1.00	2.00	0.92	24.9	5.50	25.6	4.52	0.80	2.70	0.53	48.3	1.00	1.29

[1] Prices are per kilogramme, except for milk (per litre) and eggs (per unit). [2] Figures for 15 March. [3] Figures for 15 February. [4] Veal. [5] Pork

BIBLIOGRAPHY

Recent Labour Legislation

The list of laws and orders and international conventions given below continues the list published in previous numbers of the *Review*. The titles are, as a rule, given in the original language, with abbreviated translations of all those other than English, French, and German. A brief statement of the subject is added where the title itself does not indicate it. Abbreviated titles of sources have been used[1]. Those entries in the list marked with an asterisk (*) will be reproduced in full in English, French, and German in the *Legislative Series* of the International Labour Office.

LEGISLATION OF 1925

MANDATED TERRITORIES

South Sea Islands

* Regulations concerning allowances to workmen and miners of the mining station of the South Seas Bureau. South Seas Bureau Order No. 11 promulgated on 1 March of the 12th year of Taisho (1923), amended in June of the 13th year of Taisho (1924) by South Seas Bureau Order No. 23 and in January of the 14th year of Taisho (1925) by South Seas Bureau Order No. 1. (Annual Report on the Administration of the South Sea Islands, 1925, p. 369.)

INTERNATIONAL

Poland - Bulgaria

Porozumienie Prowizoryczne w sprawach handlowych i nawigacyjnych miedzy Polska a Bulgaria, podpisane w Sofji, dnia 29 kwietnia 1925 roku. (Dziennik Ustaw, 1927, No. 6, poz. 32, p. 33.)

[Provisional Treaty of Commerce and Navigation between Poland and Bulgaria. Signed at Sofia on 29 April 1925.]

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[1] *List of abbreviations:* A. N. = Amtliche Nachrichten des Oesterreichischen Bundesministeriums für soziale Verwaltung; B. G. Bl. = Bundesgesetzblatt; B. I. R. S. = Boletin del Instituto de Reformas Sociales; B. M. T. = Bulletin du Ministère du Travail; B. O. M. T. = Boletin Oficial del Ministerio de Trabajo, Comercio e Industria; C. S. R. = Commonwealth Statutory Rules; D. R. A. = Deutscher Reichsanzeiger; Drj. Vest. = Drjaven Vestnik; E. K. N. = Ergatiké kai Koinoniké Nomothesia (parartéma B') (published by the Ministry of National Economy); Eph. Kyb. = Ephémeris tès Kybernéséos (Teuchos proton); G. U. = Gazzetta Ufficiale; I. N. K. T. = Izvestia Narodnogo Komissariata Trooda; J. O. = Journal Officiel; Lik. = Likumu un Minustru Kabineta Noteikumu Krajums; R. Arb. Bl. = Reichsarbeitsblatt; R. d. T. = Revue du Travail; R. G. Bl. = Reichsgesetzblatt; S R. & O. = Statutory Rules and Orders; Sb. z. a n. = Sbirka zâkonu a narizeni (Collection of Laws and Orders of the Czechoslovak Republic); L. S. = Legislative Series of the International Labour Office.

ARGENTINA

* Decreto reglamentando el trabajo de mujeres y menores en los territorios nacionales. 9 de junio de 1925. (Crónica Mensual del Dep. Nac. del Trab., 1926, No. 97, p. 1707.)

[Decree issuing regulations (for the application in the national territories of Act No. 11317 of 29 September 1924) respecting the employment of women and children. Dated 9 June 1925.]

BRAZIL

* Decreto n. 4982, de 24 de dezembro de 1925. Manda conceder, annualmente, 15 dias de férias aos empregados e operarios de estabelecimentos commerciaes, industriaes e bancarios, sem prejuizo de ordenado, vencimentos ou diarias e da outras providencias. (Diario Official, 1925, No. 309, p. 24025.)

[Decree No. 4982 to grant fifteen days' holiday in the year to wage-earning and salaried employees in commercial, industrial, and banking establishments without deduction from salaries, wages, or other forms of remuneration. Dated 24 December 1925.]

PANAMA

Decreto núm. 45, de 19 de agosto de 1925, reglamentario de la ley 55 de 1925. (Boletín de la Dirección general de emigración, 1925, p. 833.)

[Decree No. 45 issuing regulations under Act No. 55 of (30 March) 1925 (respecting immigration). Dated 19 August 1925.]

PORTUGAL

Portaria no. 4461 : Determina que pelos industriais que pretendam aumentar, sem dar ocasiao a mudança de classe o numero dos seus operarios ou as quantidades de matérias armazenadas nas suas oficinas, fabricas ou estabelecimentos licenciados nos termos do regulamento das industrias insalubres, incomodas, perigosas ou toxicas, deva ser pago o acréscimo do selo do alvara. 15 de Julho de 1925. (Diario do Govêrno, 1925, No. 156, p. 784.)

[Order No. 4461 to provide that manufacturers who propose to increase the number of workers in their employment or the stocks of materials stored in their workshops, factories, or establishments licensed under the regulations for unhealthy, noxious, dangerous, or poisonous industries but without changing their class, shall pay the fee corresponding to the increase. Dated 15 July 1925.]

TURKEY

* Loi sur le repos hebdomadaire. Du 2 janvier 1925.

LEGISLATION OF 1926

INTERNATIONAL

Albania - Serb - Croat - Slovene - Kingdom

Traktat tregtije e lundrimi në mest të Republikës Shqiptare e te Mbretrisë të Serbvet, Kroetëve e Sllovenëvet. 17. XII. 1926. (Fletorja Zyrtare, 1926, No. 223, p. 10.)

[Treaty respecting commerce and navigation concluded between the Republic of Albania and the Kingdom of the Serbs, Croats, and Slovenes. Dated June 1926. Ratified in Albania by Decree of 17 December 1926.]

Konvëntë mbi vendosjen dhe mbi sherbimin konsullor në mest të Republikës Shqiptare dhe të Mbretërisë te Serbëvet, Kroatvet dhe Sllovenvet. (Fletorja Zyrtare, 22 December 1926, No. 223, p. 1.)

[Agreement respecting the right of settlement and of consular service concluded between the Republic of Albania and the Kingdom of the Serbs, Croats and Slovenes. (June 1926.) Ratified in Albania by Decree (undated).]

Albania - Greece

Traktat tregtije dhe lundrimi Greqis dhe Shqipnis. 13 Tetuer 1926. (Fletorja Zyrtare, 1926, No. 225, p. 1.)

[Treaty of Commerce and Navigation between Greece and Albania. Dated 13 October 1926.]

Konvencjon Që i përket vendosies dhe sherbimit konsulluem midis Republikës Shqiptare dhe Heline. 13 Tetuer 1926. (Fletorja Zyrtare, 1926, No. 225, p. 12.)

[Convention between the Republic of Albania and the Republic of Greece respecting the right of settlement and the consular service. Dated 13 October 1926.]

ALBANIA

Dekret-Ligjë mbi Ndryshimin e neneve 5, 19, 21, 26, 27, 28 të Ligjës së Rrugave. 26 Dhetuer 1926. (Fletorja Zyrtare, 1927, No. 2, p. 3.)

[Legislative Decree to amend sections 5, 19, 21, 26, 27, and 28 of the Highways Act. (Compulsory labour.) Dated 26 December 1926.]

AUSTRALIA

Commonwealth

* Commonwealth Conciliation and Arbitration Act, 1904-1926. An Act relating to Conciliation and Arbitration for the Prevention and Settlement of Industrial Disputes extending beyond the limits of any one State. (Acts of the Parliament of the Commonwealth of Australia, 1926, p. 171.)

South Australia

* An Act to amend the Workmen's Compensation Acts, 1911 to 1925 (17 Geo. V, No. 1746.) Assented to 25 November 1926. (Acts of the Parliament of South Australia, 1926.)

Western Australia

* An Act to provide for the Inspection and Regulation of the Timber Industry. (17 Geo. V, No. 59 of 1926.) Assented to 24 December 1926.

AUSTRIA

Bundesgesetz vom 28. Dezember 1926, betreffend organisatorische Massnahmen auf dem Gebiete der Krankenversicherung der Arbeiter (Krankenkassenorganisationsgesetz). (B. G. Bl., 1927, 3. Stück, No. 15, p. 61.)

* Abänderung der XVIII. Novelle zum Arbeitslosenversicherungsgesetz. Vom 25. November 1926. (A. N., 1926, No. 11, p. 247)

CANADA

Quebec

* An Act to amend the Women's Minimum Wage Act. 16 Geo. V, c. 33. Assented to 11 March 1926.

CZECHOSLOVAKIA

Vladni marizeni ze dne 25. listopadu 1926, kterym se provadi zakon o podomnim obchode. (Sb. z. a n., 1926, Castka 103, No. 216, p. 995.)

[Government Order for the administration of the Act (of 4 May 1926) respecting hawking and peddling. Dated 25 November 1926.]

Vyhlaska ministra skolstivi a narodni osvety v dohodé s ministrem prumyslu obchodu a zivnosti ze dne 11. prosince 1926. o zrizeni fondu zivnostenskych pokracovacich (ucnovskych) skol a jeho stanovach. (Sb. z. a n., 1926, Castka 115, No. 258, p. 1357.)

[Notification of the Minister of Education and Culture in agreement with the Minister of Industry and Commerce respecting the establishment of the Fund for Trade Continuation Schools (Apprenticeship Schools) and the rules of the said Fund. Dated 11 December 1926.]

Vladni narizeni ze dne 17. prosince 1926, jimz se prodluzuje platnost vladniho narizeni ze dne 23. prosince 1924, c. 3 Sb. z. a n. z roku 1925, kterym se stanovi

nejvyssi vymera statniho prispevku k podpore nezamestnanych, jakoz i vyjimky ze zasady o pemeru vyse statniho prispevku k vysi podpory vyplacené odborovou organisaci. (Sb. z. a n., 1926, Castka 107, No. 224, p. 1214.)

[Government Order to prolong the operation of the Government Order of 23 December 1924, Sb. z. a n. No. 3 of 1925, to fix the maximum rate for the state subsidy to unemployment benefit and to prescribe exceptions to the rules concerning the ratio between the amount of the state subsidy and that of the benefit paid by the trade unions. Dated 17 December 1926.]

Vladni narizeni ze dne 22. prosince 1926, jimz se meni volebni rad do organu Lécebného fondu verejnych zamestnancu a do rozhodcich soudu. (Sb. z. a n.,1926, Castka 113, No. 249, p. 1297.)

[Government Order to amend the election rules for the administrative bodies of the Medical Fund for public employees and for the arbitration boards. Dated 22 December 1926.]

DUTCH EAST INDIES

Besluit van den Gouverneur-Generaal van 9 December 1926, No. 36 : Aanvuling van het " Veiligheidsreglement " (Staatsblad 1910, No. 406). (Staatsblad van Nederlandsch-Indië, 1926, No. 527.)

[Decree of the Governor-General No. 36 : Supplement to the Safety Regulations (Staatsblad 1910, No. 406). Dated 9 December 1926.]

* Besluit van den Gouverneur-Generaal van 31 December 1926, No. 1 : Koninklijk besluit van 24 December 1926, No. 35, houdende wijziging van artikel 1 van dat in Indisch Staatsblad 1926, No. 335, strekkende tot regeling van het arbeidscontract voor Nederlandsch-Indië. (Staatsblad van Nederlandsch-Indië, 1926, No. 570.)

[Decree of the Governor-General No. 1 : Notification of the Royal Decree of 24 December 1926, No. 35, to amend section 1 of the Decree published in Indisch Staatsblad, 1926, No. 335, respecting the regulation of contracts of employment in Dutch East Indies. Dated 31 December 1926.]

ECUADOR

Reglamento especial para las peluquerias de la República. No. 67. 12 de noviembre de 1926. (Registro Oficial, 1926, No. 185, p. 1647.)

[Special Regulations No. 67 respecting hairdressers' establishments in the Republic. Dated 12 November 1926.]

* Reglamento especial para boticas, droguerias y farmacias. No. 68. 12 de noviembre de 1926. (Registro Oficial, 1926, No. 185, p. 1647.)

[Special Regulations No. 68 respecting chemists' shops and drug-stores. Dated 12 November 1926.]

Decreto No. 74 : Reglaméntase la Inmigración y Colonización en la República. 30 de diciembre de 1926. (Registro Oficial, 1927, No. 225, p. 1370.)

[Decree No. 74 to regulate immigration and colonisation in the Republic. Dated 30 December 1926.]

EGYPT

* Décret-loi sur la pêche aux éponges dans les eaux maritimes territoriales égyptiennes. Du 21 avril 1926. (J. O. du Gouvernement égyptien, 1926, No. 40, p. 4.)

* Arrêté étendant l'application de la loi No. 14 de 1909 sur le travail des enfants aux fabriques de tabac et de cigarettes. Du 14 août 1926. (6 Safar 1345.) (J. O. du Gouvernement égyptien, 1926, No. 82, p. 1.)

* Arrêté ministériel No. 29 de 1926 sur la pêche aux éponges. Du 8 septembre 1926. (1er Rabi Awal 1345.) (J. O. du Gouvernement égyptien, 1926. No. 92 p. 1.)

FRANCE

Décret du 5 novembre 1926 relatif à la compétence civile et pénale des juges de paix. (J. O., 10 novembre 1926, p. 11964.)

Décret du 28 décembre 1926 sur les conditions à remplir par les fonds municipaux et départementaux de chômage pour bénéficier des subventions du Fonds national de chômage. (J. O., 30 décembre 1926, p. 13709.)

FRENCH COLONIES

Madagascar

* Arrêté du 8 avril 1926 créant les conseils d'arbitrage du travail indigène à Madagascar et dépendances. (J. O. de Madagascar et dépendances, 1926, No. 2088, p. 437.)

Morocco

* Arrêté viziriel du 25 décembre 1926 (19 joumada II 1345) concernant les charges qui peuvent être portées, traînées ou poussées par les enfants et les femmes. (Bulletin Officiel, 1927, No. 741, p. 15.)

* Arrêté viziriel du 25 décembre 1926 (19 joumada 1345) concernant les mesures générales de protection et de salubrité applicables à tous les établissements industriels et commerciaux. (Bulletin Officiel, 1927, No. 741, p. 11.)

HAITI

Loi déterminant les jours fériés de l'année. Du 13 juillet 1926. (Le Moniteur, 1926, No. 57, p. 341.)

ITALY

Regio decreto 5 dicembre 1926, n. 2224 : Riconoscimento giuridico della Federazione fascista autonoma delle comunità artigiane d'Italia. (Numero di pubblicazione : 77.) (G. U., 1927, No. 10, p. 140.)

[Royal Decree No. 2224 : Legal recognition of the Independent Fascist Federation of Italian Handicrafts Associations. Dated 5 December 1926.]

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[Royal Legislative Decree No. 2265 respecting the establishment of the National Silk Institution. Dated 16 December 1926.]

MEXICO (UNITED STATES OF)

Laws

Ley federal de colonización. 10 de mayo de 1926. (Diario Oficial, 1926, No. 14, p. 265.)

[Federal Land Settlement Act. Dated 10 May 1926.]

Ley General de Sociedades de Seguros. 27 de mayo de 1926. (Diario Oficial, 1926, No. 24, p. 459.)

[General Act respecting insurance companies. Dated 27 May 1926.]

Ley Reglamentaria del Articulo 28 Constitucional. 24 de junio de 1926. (Diario Oficial, 1926, No. 48, p. 933.)

[Act issued under Article 28 of the Constitution. Dated 24 June 1926. (Secs. 14-16 : authorised co-operative societies).]

Orders

Decreto modificando los articulos 5, 15 y 16 del Reglamento sobre vacunación y revacunación, de 27 de marzo de 1925. 27 de enero de 1926. (Diario Oficial, 1926, No. 34, p. 649.)

[Decree to amend sections 5, 15, and 20 of the Regulations of 27 March 1925 concerning vaccination and revaccination. Dated 27 January 1926.]

Reglamento de la Ley del Petroleo, de 26 de diciembre de 1925. 6 de marzo de 1926. (Diario Oficial, 1926, No. 31, p. 722.)

[Administrative Regulations under the Petrol Act of 26 December 1925. Dated 6 March 1926.]

Reglamento para el establecimiento y funcionamiento de molinos de nixtamal, expendios de masa y tortillerias. 14 de marzo de 1926. (Diario Oficial, 1926, No. 17, p. 439.)

[Regulations for the establishment and working of maize (nixtamal) mills, shops for the sale of dough, and tortilla bakeries. Dated 14 March 1926.]

Reglamento de la Ley sobre repartición de tierras y constitución del patrimonio parcelario ejidal. 25 de marzo de 1926. (Diario Oficial, 1926, No. 28, p. 657.)

[Administrative Regulations under the Act respecting the distribution of land and the constitution of a common domain. Dated 25 March 1926.]

Decreto creando la Dirección de lineas nacionales de navegación. 27 de abril de 1926. (Diario Oficial, 1926, No. 1, p. 1.)

[Decree establishing a National Shipping Board. Dated 27 April 1926.]

Codigó Nacional Electrico. 6 de mayo de 1926. (Diario Oficial, 1926, No. 7, p. 132.)

[National Code for the electrical industry. Dated 6 May 1926.]

Reglamento de la Ley de industrias minerales. 31 de julio de 1926. (Diario Oficial, 1926, No. 37, p. 7.)

[Administrative Regulations under the Mining Industries Act. Dated 31 July 1926.]

Reglamento Interior del Consejo de Salubridad General de la República. 25 de noviembre de 1926. (Diario Oficial, 1926, No. 29, p. 9.)

[Standing Orders for the Public Health Council of the Republic. Dated 25 November 1926.]

Federal District

Reglamento de las Juntas de Conciliación y Arbitraje del Distrito Federal. 9 de marzo de 1926. (Diario Oficial, 1926, No. 18, p. 463.)

[Regulations for the Conciliation and Arbitration Boards in the Federal District. Dated 9 March 1926.]

Reglamento para el establecimiento y funcionamiento de molinos de nixtamal, expendios de masa y tortillerias. 31 de mayo de 1926. (Diario Oficial, 1926, No. 46, p. 900.)

[Regulations for the establishment and working of maize (nixtamal) mills shops for the sale of dough, and tortilla bakeries. Dated 31 May 1926.]

Yucatan

Decreto no. 70 : obligación de establecer escuelas en los centros de trabajo. 10 de aprile de 1926.

[Decree No. 70 : compulsory establishment of schools in centres of employment. Dated 10 April 1926.]

NEW ZEALAND

* An Act to amend the Workers' Compensation Act, 1922. No. 51 of 1926. (17 Geo. V.) Dated 9 September 1926.

* An Act to consolidate and amend certain Enactments of the General Assembly relating to Mines and Mining. No. 15 of 1926. Dated 11 September 1926.

PERU

Decreto del Poder Ejecutivo modificando el artículo 540 del reglamento de la marina mercante y de capitanias. 12 de abril de 1926. (El Peruano, 1926, Tomo I, No. 96, p. 389.)

[Decree of the Executive to amend section 540 of the Regulations for the Mercantile Marine and the Port Authorities. Dated 12 April 1926.]

Decreto del Poder Ejecutivo haciendo obligatoria a los empresarios e industriales, la constitución de un fondo de garantia que responda por la asistencia médica de los empleados y obreros. 14 de mayo de 1926. (El Peruano, 1926, Tomo I, No. 117, p. 477.)

[Decree of the Executive to make it compulsory for owners of undertakings to

establish a guarantee fund for the provision of medical relief for their wage-earning and salaried employees. Dated 14 May 1926.]

Decreto del Poder Ejecutivo creando patronatos escolares en las escuelas fiscales. 12 de junio de 1926. (El Peruano, 1926, Tomo I, No. 141, p. 581.)

[Decree of the Executive to institute School Welfare Boards in the state schools. Dated 12 June 1926.]

POLAND

* Rozporzadzenie Ministra Pracy i Opieki Spolecznej z dnia 5 lipca 1926 roku w porozumieniu z Ministrem Skarbu, Ministrem Przemyslu i Handlu, Ministrem Rolnictwa i Dóbr Panstwowych, Ministrem Kolei, Ministrem Robót Publicznych oraz Ministrem Sprawiedliwosci w sprawie uzupelnienia rozporzadzenia z dnia 31 grudnia 1924 r. o obowiazku pracodawcowzawiadamiania panstwowych urzedów posrednictwa pracy o kazdem wolnem lub nowoobsadzonem miejscu. (Dziennik Ustaw, 1926, No. 93, poz. 542, p. 1040.)

[Order of the Minister of Labour and Social Welfare, in agreement with the Ministers of Finance, Commerce, and Trade, Agriculture and State Lands, Railways, Public Works, and Justice, to supplement the Order of 31 December 1924 respecting the duty of employers to notify the public employment exchanges of vacancies created or filled in their establishments. Dated 5 July 1926.]

PORTUGAL

Decreto no. 12533 : Promulga o estatuto politico, civil e criminal dos indigenas de Angola e Moçambique. 23 Outubro de 1926. (Diario do Govêrno, 1926, No. 237, p. 1667.)

[Decree No. 12533 concerning the political, civil, and penal status of natives in Angola and Mozambique. Dated 23 October 1926.]

SOUTHERN RHODESIA

* Act for regulating the employment of native juveniles. No. 10 of 1926. (No date.)

SPAIN

* Real decreto relativo a las medidas que el estudio de la lucha contra la anquilostomiasis o anemia de los mineros aconseja dictar. 12 de mayo de 1926. (Gaceta de Madrid, 1926, No. 133, p. 852.)

[Royal Decree respecting the measures which it appears necessary to adopt as a result of the study of the campaign against ankylostomiasis or " miners' anaemia ". Dated 12 May 1926.]

Real orden de 31 de julio de 1926 resolviendo el expediente promovido por las Compañias de Ferrocarriles de Madrid, Zaragoza y Alicante y de Madrid a Caceres y Portugal y del Oeste de Espana [en el sentido de que el numero 1 de la Real orden de 24 de septiembre de 1925 no modificó la jornada maxima legal de los Porteros, Conserjes y Ordenanzas de oficinas y talleres de las Compañias de ferrocarriles, y por tanto, dicha jornada sera de ocho horas, abonandose como extraordinarias unicamente las que dichos agentes trabajen sobre las ocho]. (Gaceta de Madrid, 1926, No 215, p. 818.)

[Royal Order in settlement of a question submitted by the Railway Companies of Madrid-Saragossa-Alicante, Madrid-Caceres-Portugal, and the West of Spain (and providing that No. 1 of the Royal Order of 24 September 1925 shall not alter the maximum legal working day of porters, watchmen, and caretakers in offices and workshops of railway companies and that their working day shall therefore be eight hours and only hours in excess thereof worked by the said officials shall be paid at overtime rates). Dated 31 July 1926.]

* Real orden aprobando el Reglamento provisional, que se inserta, de aplicación del Real decreto de 12 de mayo próximo pasado, relacionado con la lucha contra la anquilostomiasis. 4 de diciembre de 1926. (Gaceta de Madrid, 1926, No. 343, p. 1325.)

[Royal Order to approve the Provisional Regulations appended thereto under Royal Decree of 12 May 1926 respecting the combating of ankylostomiasis. Dated 4 December 1926.]

STRAITS SETTLEMENTS

* An Ordinance to amend Ordinance No. 197 (Labour). No. 34 of 1926. Assented to 16 December 1926.

TRINIDAD AND TOBAGO

* An Ordinance to amend the Workmen's Compensation Ordinance, 1926. No. 30 of 1926. Assented to 15 December 1926.

LEGISLATION OF 1927

CONTROLLED TERRITORIES OF LEAGUE OF NATIONS

Saar Territory

Verordnung betr. den Verkauf von Betriebsstoffen. Vom 14. Januar 1927. (Amtsblatt der Regierungskommission des Saargebietes, 1927, No. 4, p. 12.)

* Verordnung über die Beschäftigung Schwerbeschädigter im Saargebiet. Nr. 152. Vom 16. März 1927. (Amtsblatt, 1927, No. 12, p. 60.)

Verordnung betr. die Beschäftigung von Arbeiterinnen und jugendlichen Arbeitern in Glashütten, Glasschleifereien und Glasbeizereien sowie Sandbläsereien. Vom 6. April 1927. (Amtsblatt, 1927, No. 15, p. 98.)

Verordnung betr. die Beschäftigung von Arbeiterinnen und jugendlichen Arbeitern in Walz- und Hammerwerken. Vom 6. April 1927. (Amtsblatt, 1927, No. 15, p. 98.)

AUSTRIA

Laws

* Bundesgesetz vom 16. März 1927, womit einige Bestimmungen des Bundesgesetzes vom 28. Dezember 1926, B. G. Bl. Nr. 15 von 1927, in der Fassung der Kundmachung vom 8. Jänner 1927, B. G. Bl. Nr. 21 (Krankenkassenorganisationsgesetz), abgeändert, beziehungsweise ergänzt werden. (B. G. Bl., 1927, 28. Stück, No. 99, p. 332.)

* Bundesgesetz vom 1. April 1927, betreffend die Kranken-, Unfall- und Invalidenversicherung der Arbeiter (Arbeiterversicherungsgesetz). (B. G. Bl., 1927, 32. Stück, No. 125, p. 377.)

Bundesgesetz vom 1. April 1927, wirksam für das Land Steiermark, betreffend die gewerblichen Fortbildungsschulen in der Steiermark. (B. G. Bl., 1927, 33. Stück. No. 131, p. 435.)

Orders

* Kundmachung des Bundeskanzleramtes vom 8. Jänner 1927, betreffend die Berichtigung von Druckfehlern im Bundesgesetzblatte (Berichtigung des Textes des Krankenkassenorganisationsgesetzes). (B. G. Bl., 1927, 5. Stück, No. 21, p. 89.)

Verordnung des Bürgermeisters als Landeshauptmannes vom 29. Jänner 1927. Reinigungs- und Sperrgeld der Hausbesorger in Wien. (Landesgesetzblatt, 31 Jan. 1927, 3. Stück, No. 8.)

* Verordnung des Bundesministeriums für soziale Verwaltung vom 22. Februar 1927, womit die neue Fassung des Arbeitslosenversicherungsgesetzes verlautbart wird. (B. G. Bl., 1927, 18. Stück, No. 73. p. 255.)

Verordnung des Bundesministeriums für soziale Verwaltung vom 15. März 1927 über die Erhaltung des Arbeiterstandes in gewerblichen Betrieben. (B. G. Bl., 1927. 27. Stück, No. 91, p. 325.)

* Verordnung des Bundesministeriums für soziale Verwaltung vom 19. März 1927 über die Gewährung von Ausnahmen vom Achtstundentagsgesetze für gewerbliche Sägewerke. (B. G. Bl., 1927, 27. Stück, No. 93, p. 326.)

Verordnung des Bundesministeriums für soziale Verwaltung vom 22. März

1927, betreffend Abänderung der Verzugsgebühren in der Sozialversicherung. (B. G. Bl., 1927, 27. Stück, No. 94, p. 326.)

Verordnung der Bundesregierung vom 8. April 1927, womit einige Bestimmungen der Verordnung der Bundesregierung vom 16. Jänner 1925, B. G. Bl. Nr. 37, über die Dienst- und Besoldungsverhältnisse der Vertragsangestellten abgeändert und ergänzt werden. (B. G. Bl., 1927, 35. Stück, No. 136, p. 458.)

DANZIG (FREE CITY OF)

Gesetz über Aenderung der Wahlen nach der Reichsversicherungsordnung. Vom 23. Februar 1927. (Gesetzblatt für die Freie Stadt Danzig, 1927, No. 10, p. 73.)

Verordnung über die Zusammensetzung der Organe der Versicherungsträger der Unfall- und Angestelltenversicherung. Vom 22. März 1927. (Gesetzblatt für die Freie Stadt Danzig, 1927, No. 10, p. 73.)

DENMARK

* Lov Nr. 11 om Ændring i Lov af 21. December 1921 om Maegling i Arbejdsstridigheder. 31. Januar 1927. (Lovtidenden A, No. 2, 1927, p. 23.)
[Act No. 11 to amend the Act of 21 December 1921 respecting conciliation in labour disputes. Dated 31 January 1927.]

* Bekendtgörelse om en mellem Danmark of Norge afsluttet Overenskomst om Overflytning af Medlemmer mellem Sygekasser i Danmark of Norge. Nr. 20. 31. Januar 1927. (Lovtidenden A, No. 3, 1927, p. 37.)
[Notification No. 20 of a Convention between Denmark and Norway respecting the transfer of members of sick funds in Denmark and Norway. Dated 31 January 1927.]

* Lov Nr. 34 om Ændringer i Lov Nr. 526 af 21. December 1921 om Maegling i Arbejdsstridigheder. 28. Februar 1927. (Lovtidenden A, No. 5, 1927, p. 67.)
[Act No. 34 to amend Act No. 526 of 21 December 1921 respecting conciliation in labour disputes. Dated 28 February 1927.]

GERMANY

Gesetz über die Reichswohnungszählung im Jahre 1927 und die Feststellung der Zahl der Wohnungssuchenden. Vom 2. März 1927. (R. G. Bl., I, 1927, No. 12, p. 69.)

Gesetz zur Abänderung des Gesetzes über Mieterschutz und Mieteinigungsämter vom 1. Juni 1923 (Reichsgesetzbl. I, S. 353) in der Fassung der Bekanntmachung vom 30. Juni 1926 (Reichsgesetzblatt I, S. 347). Vom 17. März 1927. (R. G. Bl., I, 1927, No. 13, p. 71.)

* Verordnung über die Arbeitszeit in Gaswerken. Vom 9. Februar 1927. (R. G. Bl., I, 1927, No. 8, p. 59.)

* Verordnung über die Arbeitszeit in Metallhütten. Vom 9. Februar 1927. (R. G. Bl., I, 1927, No. 8, p. 59.)

* Verordnung über die Arbeitszeit in Glashütten und Glasschleifereien. Vom 9. Februar 1927. (R. G. Bl., I, 1927, No. 8, p. 59.)

Verordnung über die Vergütung nach § 42 des Angestelltenversicherungsgesetzes und § 1274 *a* der Reichsversicherungsordnung. Vom 10. März 1927. (R. Arb. Bl., I, 1927, No. 9, p. 78.)

Verordnung über Festsetzung einer Mindesthöhe der gesetzlichen Miete. Vom 11. März 1927. (R. G. Bl., I, 1927, No. 13, p. 72.)

Anordnung über die weitere Geltung der Höchstsätze in der Erwerbslosenfürsorge. Vom 17. März 1927. (R. Arb. Bl., I, 1927, No. 9, p. 78.)

Verordnung zur Aenderung der Ausführungsbestimmungen zur Verordnung über Aerzte und Krankenkassen. Vom 24. März 1927. (R. G. Bl., I, 1927, No. 14, p. 82.)

Anordnung über weitere Verlängerung der Kurzarbeiterfürsorge. Vom 24. März 1927. (R. G. Bl., I, 1927, No. 14, p. 81.)

Verordnung zur Verlängerung der Geltungsdauer des Gesetzes über eine Krisenfürsorge für Erwerbslose. Vom 24. März 1927. (R. G. Bl., I, 1927, No. 14, p. 81.)

Verordnung zur Aenderung der Sechsten Ausführungsverordnung zur Verordnung über Erwerbslosenfürsorge. Vom 24. März 1927. (R. G. Bl., I, 1927, No. 14, p. 81.)

Achte Ausführungsverordnung zur Verordnung über Erwerbslosenfürsorge. Vom 24. März 1927. (R. G. Bl., I. 1927, No. 14, p. 81.)

Verordnung über die Beschäftigung jugendlicher Arbeiter auf Steinkohlenbergwerken. Vom 25. März 1927. (R. G. Bl., I, 1927, No. 14, p. 82.)

Verordnung über die Beschäftigung von Arbeiterinnen und jugendlichen Arbeitern in Glashütten. Glasschleifereien und Glasbeizereien sowie Sandbläsereien. Vom 25. März 1927. (R. G. Bl., I, 1927, No. 14, p. 82.)

Verordnung über die Beschäftigung von Arbeiterinnen und jugendlichen Arbeitern in Walz- und Hammerwerken. Vom 25. März 1927. (R. G. Bl., I, 1927, No. 14, p. 82.)

HUNGARY

A m. kir. népjoléti és munkaügyi miniszternek a m. kir. belügyminiszterrel és a m. kir. kereskedelemügyi miniszterrel egyetértöen kiadott 21404/1927. N.M.M. szamu rendelete a beköltözés ideiglenes betiltasarol szolo 11190/1926. M.E. szamu rendelet végrehajtasa targyaban. 1927. évi januar ho 7-én. (Budapesti Közlöny, 1927, 26. szam, 1. lap.)

[Order No. 21404/1927 N.M.M. of the Ministers of Social Welfare and Labour, of the Interior, and of Commerce under Order No. 11190/1926 M.E. respecting the provisional prohibition of immigration. Dated 7 January 1927.]

ITALY

Laws

Regio decreto-legge 10 febbraio 1927, n. 196 : Limiti della quota sociale e delle azioni per le società cooperative. (Numero di pubblicazione : 435.) (G. U., 1927, No. 46, p. 872.)

[Royal Legislative Decree No. 196 to limit the value of shares which may be held in a co-operative society. Dated 10 February 1927.]

Regio decreto-legge 20 marzo 1927, n. 402 : Proroga della disposizioni limitatrici della facoltà d'iscrizione nelle matricole della gente di mare. (Numero di pubblicazione : 694.) (G. U., 1927, No. 78, p. 1432.)

[Royal Legislative Decree No. 402 to extend the provisions limiting the right of enrolment on the seamen's registers. Dated 20 March 1927.]

Regio decreto-legge 20 marzo 1927, n. 458 : Censimento generale degli esercizi industriali e commerciali. (Numero di pubblicazione : 741.) (G. U., 1927, No. 85, p. 1544.)

[Royal Legislative Decree No. 458 concerning the general census of industrial and commercial undertakings. Dated 20 March 1927.]

Orders

Regio decreto 13 gennaio 1927, n. 99 : Modificazioni al regolamento generale sulla istruzione industriale approvato con R. decreto 3 giugno 1924, n. 969. (Numero di pubblicazione : 318.) (G. U., 1927, No. 36, p. 631.)

[Royal Decree No. 99 to amend the general regulations concerning vocational instruction approved by Decree No. 269 of 3 June 1924. Dated 13 January 1927.]

Regio decreto 23 gennaio 1927, n. 325 : Varianti al regolamento per la navigazione aerea. (Numero di pubblicazione : 620.) (G. U., 1927, No. 68, p. 1266.)

[Royal Decree No. 325 to amend the aviation regulations. Dated 23 January 1927.]

Decreto ministeriale 30 gennaio 1927 : Approvazione delle tariffe e norme per le mercedi ai lavoratori dei porti di Imperia (Porto Maurizio e Oneglia) per le operazioni di carico, scarico e movimento delle merci. (G. U., 1927, No. 36, p. 636.)

[Ministerial Decree to approve the wage scales and rules for workers in the Ports of Imperia (Porto Maurizio and Oneglia) employed in the loading, unloading, and handling of goods. Dated 30 January 1927.]

Regio decreto 30 gennaio 1927 : Istituzione di una " Cinemateca per la propaganda igienica e di prevenzione sociale ". (G. U., 1927, No. 46, p. 878.)

[Royal Decree to institute a cinema propaganda office for hygiene and social welfare. Dated 30 January 1927.]

* Regio decreto 17 febbraio 1927, n. 363 : Esecuzione della dichiarazione fra l'Italia e la Svizzera per l'assicurazione contro la disoccupazione, firmata a Roma il 9 febbraio 1927. (Numero di pubblicazione : 654.) (G. U., 1927, No. 72, p. 1322.)

[Royal Decree No. 363 respecting the carrying out of the Declaration between Italy and Switzerland concerning unemployment insurance, signed at Rome on 9 February 1927. Dated 17 February 1927.]

Decreto ministeriale 25 febbraio 1927 : Rappresentanza delle Confederazioni dei datori di lavoro e dei lavoratori nel Consiglio centrale dell' Opera nazionale per la protezione della maternità e dell' infanzia. (G. U., 1927, No. 73, p. 1371.)

[Ministerial Decree respecting the representation of confederations of employers and workers on the Central Council of the National Institution for the protection of motherhood and childhood. Dated 25 February 1927.]

Regio decreto 17 mars 1927, n. 401 : Ordinamento del Ministero delle corporazioni. (Numero di pubblicazione : 695.) (G. U., 1927, No. 78, p. 1433.)

[Royal Decree No. 401 respecting the organisation of the Ministry of Corporations. Dated 17 March 1927.]

Decreto ministeriale 1° marzo 1927 : Determinazione, agli effetti della disoccupazione involontaria, delle lavorazioni che si compiono annualmente in determinati periodi di durata inferiore a sei mesi. (G. U., 1927, No. 69, p. 1287.)

[Ministerial Decree issuing, for the purposes of unemployment insurance, a schedule of work which is performed annually during fixed periods lasting less than six months. Dated 1 March 1927.]

Decreto ministeriale 1° marzo 1927 : Variazioni alle tabelle delle industrie e lavorazioni aventi disoccupazione stagionale o di sosta. (G. U., 1927, No. 69, p. 1288.)

[Ministerial Order to amend the schedules of industries and processes subject to seasonal unemployment or to periods of suspension. Dated 1 March 1927.]

Regio decreto 17 marzo 1927, n. 388 : Modificazioni allo statuto della Federazione fascista autonoma delle Comunità artigiane d'Italia. (Numero di pubblicazione : 684.) (G. U., 1927, No. 77, p. 1422.)

[Royal Decree No. 388 to amend the rules of the Independent Fascist Federation of Italian Handicrafts Associations. Dated 17 March 1927.]

* Regio decreto-legge 17 marzo 1927, n. 386 : Disciplina del lavoro nei panifici di notevole potenzialità, con forni a regime continuo. (Numero di pubblicazione : 681.) (G. U., 1927, No. 76, p. 1405.)

LITHUANIA

Memel

* Paskelbimas apie jawu malunus. 1927 m. kowo mén. 3 d. (Amtsblatt des Memelgebietes, 1927, No. 26, p. 157.)

[Notification respecting the working of flour mills. Dated 3 March 1927.]

LUXEMBURG

Arrêté du 24 février 1927, concernant l'institution des caisses régionales de maladie.

Beschluss vom 24. Februar 1927 über die Errichtung der Bezirkskrankenkassen. (Mémorial, 1927, No. 12, p. 167.)

Arrêté du 24 février 1927, concernant l'approbation des statuts des caisses régionales de maladie.

Beschluss vom 24. Februar 1927 über die Genehmigung der Satzungen der Bezirkskrankenkassen.

(Mémorial, 1927, No. 12, p. 168.)

Arrêté grand-ducal du 4 avril 1927, concernant les fixations et évaluations nécessitées en matière d'assurance-accidents, agricole et forestière, ainsi que la procédure à suivre

Grossh. Beschluss vom 4. April 1927, betreffend die in der land- und forstwirtschaftlichen Unfallversicherung erforderlichen Festsetzungen und Abschätzungen, sowie das hierbei einzuschlagende Verfahren.

(Mémorial, 1927, No. 19, p. 307.)

Arrêté grand-ducal du 4 avril 1927, ayant pour objet la nomination des divers délégués prévus par la loi du 17 décembre 1925 concernant le code des assurances sociales (livre II, assurance-accidents, agricole et forestière).

Grossh. Beschluss vom 4. April 1927, betreffend die Ernennung der verschiedenen durch Gesetz vom 17. Dezember 1925 über die Sozialversicherungsordnung vorgesehenen Delegierten (II. Buch, land- und forstwirtschaftliche Unfallversicherung).

(Mémorial, 1927, No. 19, p. 303.)

Arrêté grand-ducal du 4 avril 1927, portant approbation des statuts de l'Association d'assurance contre les accidents, section agricole et forestière.

Grossh. Beschluss vom 4. April 1927, wodurch die Satzung der land- und forstwirtschaftlichen Unfallversicherungsgenossenschaft genehmigt wird.

(Mémorial, 1927, No. 19, p. 292.)

Arrêté grand-ducal du 4 avril 1927, portant approbation des statuts de l'Association d'assurance contre les accidents, section industrielle.

Grossh. Beschluss vom 4. April 1927, wodurch die Satzung der Unfallversicherungsgenossenschaft (gewerbliche Abteilung) genehmigt wird.

(Mémorial, 1927, No. 19, p. 277.)

Arrêté grand-ducal du 16 avril 1927 sur les habitations à bon marché.

Grossh. Beschluss vom 16. April 1927, betreffend die Erbauung von billigen Wohnungen.

(Mémorial, 1927, No. 20, p. 317.)

POLAND

Oswiadzenic rzadowe z dnia 12 stycznia 1927 r. w sprawie Wymiany dokumentow ratyfikacyjnych Porozumienia Prowizorycznego w sprawich handlowych nawigacyjnych miedzy Polska a Bugarja, podpisanego w Sofji dn. 29 kwietnia 1925 r. (Dziennik Ustaw, 1927, No. 6, poz. 33, p. 43.)

[Government Notification respecting the exchange of instruments of ratification of the Provisional Treaty of Commerce and Navigation between Poland and Bulgaria, signed at Sofia on 29 April 1925.]

PORTUGAL

Decreto no. 13166 : Regulamenta e execução da lei que rege os serviços de higiene publica. 28 de Janeiro de 1927. (Diario do Govêrno, 1927, No. 34, p. 237.)

[Decree No. 13166 issuing administrative regulations under the Act respecting the public health services. Dated 28 January 1927.]

Decreto no. 13128 : Aprova o regulamento de decreto no. 12376, que criou o desembaraço das capitanias par os navios estrangeiros que freqüentan os portos portugueses. 4 de Fevereiro de 1927. (Diario do Govêrno, 1927, No. 28, p. 208. Errata : 1927, No. 43, p. 282 ; No. 50, p. 363.)

[Decree No. 13128 of the Minister of the Marine to approve the regulations under Decree No. 12376 which provide that the clearance of foreign ships in Portuguese harbours shall be effected by the port authorities (capitanias.) Dated 4 February 1926.]

Decreto no. 13268 : Aprova o regulamento de segurança das instalaçoes eléctricas de bordo, a que se refere o no. 2 do artigo 30 do decreto no. 12383. 26 de Fevereiro de 1927. (Diario do Govêrno, 1927, No. 49, p. 345.)

[Decree No. 13268 to approve the safety regulations for electricity installations on board ship, issued under section 30 (2) of Decree No. 12383. Dated 26 February 1927.]

Decreto no. 13213 : Regula a assistencia médica e protecçao aos emigrantes portugueses que em portos nacionais embarquem em navios estrangeiros. 4 de Março de 1927. (Diario do Govêrno, 1927, No. 44, p. 285. Erratum: 1927, No. 72, p. 516.)

[Decree No. 13213 to regulate medical relief for the protection of Portuguese emigrants who embark on foreign vessels in Portuguese ports. Dated 4 March 1927.]

Portaria no. 4829 : Esclarece que é mantida em vigor a favor das emprêsas de transportes maritimos de nacionalidade brasileira a excepcao consignada no § 1 do artigo 1 do decreto no. 10634, quanto as condiçoes impostas para embarque de emigrantes. 10 de Março de 1927. (Diario de Govêrno, 1927, No. 51, p. 367.)

[Order No. 4829 to provide that the exception laid down in No. (1) of section 1 of Decree No. 10634 (of 7 April 1925) with respect to the conditions for the transport of emigrants shall remain in operation with regard to Brazilian maritime transport undertakings. Dated 10 March 1927.]

* Decreto no. 13274 : Aprova o regulamento das condiçoes a que devem satisfazer os alojamentos das tripulaçoes das embarcaçoes da marinha mercante. 9 de Março de 1927. (Diario do Govêrno, 1927, No. 50, p. 362.)

[Decree No. 13274 to approve the regulations respecting the conditions to be complied with in respect of the sleeping accommodation of the crew on merchant vessels. Dated 11 March 1927.]

Portaria no. 4834 : Determina que as capitanias dos portos, desde que se derifiquem serem os meios de salvaçao a bordo dos navios ingleses os exigidos pelos regulamentos em vigor naquele pais, reconheçam aqueles meios como equivalentes aos ordenados pela legislaçao portuguesa. 17 de Março de 1927. (Diario do Govêrno, 1927, No. 55, p. 381.)

[Order No. 4834 to provide that the port authorities, if they are satisfied that the life-preserving apparatus on board British ships satisfy the British regulations, shall recognise the said apparatus as equivalent to that required by Portuguese legislation. Dated 17 March 1927.]

Portaria no. 4842 : Regula a concessao de salvoscondutos aos trabalhadores que desejam seguir para paises vizinhos. 26 de Março de 1927. (Diario do Govêrno, 1927, No. 66, p. 475.)

[Order No. 4842 to regulate the issue of passes to workers desirous of going into neighbouring countries. Dated 26 March 1927.]

Decreto no. 13351 : Estabelece as bases do novo regime em que devera exercerse a industria dos tabacos. 28 de Março de 1927. (Diario do Govêrno, 1927, No. 64, p. 458. Erratum : 1927, No. 68, p. 489.)

[Decree No. 13351 issuing new regulations for the organisation of the tobacco industry. Dated 28 March 1927.]

Decreto no. 13393 : Transfere para o Instituto de Seguros Sociais Obrigatorios e de Pervidência Geral os mestres e operarios, das obras de edificios nacionais, que tenham sido julgados invalidos pela Junta Médica do Ministério do Comercio e Comunicaçoes. 1 de Abril de 1927. (Diario do Govêrno, 1927, No. 68, p. 492.)

[Decree No. 13393 to provide that foremen and workers in state building undertakings who have been declared unfit for work by the medical board of the Ministry of Commerce and Communications shall be cared for by the Institute for Compulsory Social Insurance and Public Welfare. Dated 1 April 1927.]

URUGUAY

* Decreto : Se reglamenta la jornada de trabajo para los obreros de las camaras frigorificas. 21 de enero de 1927. (Diario Oficial, 1927, No. 6206, p. 196-A.)

[Decree to regulate the hours of work of persons employed in cold-storage rooms. Dated 21 January 1927.]

* Decreto : Se sustituye un artículo del decreto reglamentario de las leyes relativas al descanso semanal del servicio domestico. 25 de febrero de 1927. (Diario Oficial, 1927, No. 6236, p. 495-A.)

[Decree to amend a section of the Decree issuing regulations under the Acts respecting the weekly rest in domestic service. Dated 25 February 1927.]

Book Notes

INTERNATIONAL PUBLICATIONS

International Labour Office. *International Labour Conference, Tenth Session, Geneva, 1927. Freedom of Association. Report and Draft Questionnaire.* Item II on the Agenda. First Discussion. Geneva, 1927. 147 pp.

An endeavour is made in this volume to give some exposition of the legal provisions which govern the application of the principle of freedom of association in the different countries, a subject placed on the Agenda of the Tenth Session of the International Labour Conference, in accordance with the decision taken by the Governing Body of the International Labour Office at its thirtieth session in January 1926. The introduction is devoted to the problems of freedom of association and their origin. It is followed by a comparative study in three parts dealing respectively with : (1) the individual's right to combine for trade purposes, the manner in which the right is recognised, the scope and legal effect of recognition, and the right to refrain from joining an association ; (2) the law of trade unions, the formation, constitution, and dissolution of trade combinations, the trade union and the trade union federation ; (3) activities of trade combinations, conditions governing these activities, internal activities (institutions set up by trade combinations, trade disputes, etc.), trade combinations and collective agreements, trade combinations and managerial control, and participation of trade combinations in state activities.

A final chapter sets forth the reasons which make it desirable to embody rules on the subject of freedom of association in an international Draft Convention and the conclusions drawn from the preceding study. This is followed by a Draft Questionnaire, drawn up along the lines suggested by these conclusions, which will form the basis of the discussion by the Tenth Session of the International Labour Conference in accordance with the double-discussion procedure now in operation.

The volume is also published in French and in German.

—— *International Labour Conference, Tenth Session, Geneva, 1927. Minimum Wage-fixing Machinery. Report and Draft Questionnaire.* Item III on the Agenda. First Discussion. Geneva, 1927. 159 pp.

In view of the importance of the problem of " the adequate living wage " and the emphasis laid on it by the signatory parties to the Peace Treaty, the Governing Body of the International Labour Office instructed the Office to undertake an enquiry into the systems set up by legislation in the various countries for the fixing of wages, particularly in unorganised or insufficiently organised industries. The results of this enquiry, which was of a purely documentary character, were published in a series of articles in the *International Labour Review.* The research work carried out by the Office led to the conclusion that the question might usefully be examined by the Conference and, at the Thirtieth Session of the Governing Body in January 1926, it was decided to place the subject of minimum wage regulation (with particular reference to the homeworking trades) on the agenda of the Tenth Session of the International Labour Conference.

The chief objects of, and problems connected with, minimum wage legislation are set out in the above volume, which is published in English, French, and German, and is in three parts. The first consists of a general survey ; it deals with the development and objects of minimum wage legislation, minimum wage-fixing machinery, bases for fixing minimum wages, the demarcation of trades and occupations, inspection and enforcement. The second part reviews minimum wage systems of different countries, and the third contains the Draft Questionnaire on minimum wage-fixing machinery intended to serve as a basis for discussion by the Conference and to help to define the limitations within which the Conference will take its definite decision in the following Session in the form of a Draft Convention or Recommendation.

—— *The Medical Inspection of Labour. Report of the Meeting of Medical Inspectors of Labour held in Düsseldorf, 15-19 September 1926.* Studies and Reports, Series F (Industrial Hygiene), No. 10. Geneva, 1926. 80 pp. 1s. 6d. ; 40 cents.

The results of the Conference of Medical Inspectors of Labour held in Düsseldorf in September 1926 went far beyond the hopes of the organisers. A very full and well-documented series of reports and communications on the present organisation and activities of industrial medical services was collected, while those who attended the Conference had an opportunity of discussing their experiences and at the same time of forming personal ties which will not fail to bear fruit in their future work. The above report is not a stenographic record of the proceedings, but a fairly complete summary of the communications made at the Conference ; the summaries are supplied by the speakers themselves.

The Protection of Women in Industry before and after Childbirth. A Comparative Study. Geneva, 1926. 89 pp. Mimeographed.

A survey of the laws of the States Members of the International Labour Organisation intended to facilitate the comparison of these laws with one another and with the Washington Draft Convention relating to the employment of women before and after childbirth. The survey is divided into three parts. The first explains the general features of the laws ; the second summarises their provisions, dealing in turn with rest periods, benefits (pecuniary and medical), nursing intervals allowed to working mothers, retention of employment, and factory crèches ; the third consists of tables from which the main provisions of the laws may be ascertained at a glance. To aid further research, should this be necessary, Part II gives references to the texts of the laws found in the *Legislative Series* published by the International Labour Office or in the *Bulletin* formerly published by the International Labour Office of Basle.

Comité juridique international de l'aviation. *Septième Congrès International de Législation aérienne tenu à Lyon du 28 septembre au 2 octobre 1925 sous la présidence de M. de Lapradelle.* Paris, Per Orbem, 1926. 322 pp.

The agenda of the seventh International Congress for Aviation Legislation, held at Lyons 28 September to 2 October 1925, comprised : customs regulations, insurance, and the hospital aeroplane.

Article 66 of the International Air Code discussed by the Congress provides that in countries where the pilot and the crew are not covered by general legislation relating to industrial accidents, they must be compulsorily insured.

International Federation of Lithographers, Lithographic Printers and Kindred Trades. *Eleventh International Congress at London,* 16-18 September 1926. Reports and Minutes of the Congress. Brussels. 200 pp.

AUSTRALIA

QUEENSLAND

Department of Agriculture and Stock. *Report by the Director to the Council of Agriculture under " The Primary Producers' Organisation Act of 1922 ". Embracing a Review of the Operations of the Year ending 30 June 1926.* Brisbane, 1926. 34 pp. 1s. 6d.

State Government Insurance Office. *Tenth Annual Report for the year ended 30 June 1926.* Brisbane, 1926. 31 pp. 1s.

BELGIUM

Ministère de l'Industrie et de la Prévoyance sociale. Secrétariat général. *Statistique des Accidents du Travail (etc.), exercice 1921. Exposé des résultats.* Brussels, 1925. 59 pp.

CANADA

ONTARIO

Department of Agriculture. *Forty-Eighth Annual Report of the Agricultural and Experimental Union 1926.* Toronto, 1927. 64 pp.

FRANCE

Ministère des Affaires étrangères. *Rapport à la Société des Nations sur la situation de la Syrie et du Liban (année 1925).* Paris, Imprimerie nationale, 1926. 156 pp.

Report of the French Ministry of Foreign Affairs to the League of Nations on the position of Syria and Lebanon for 1925.

Ministère du Travail, de l'Hygiène, de l'Assistance et de la Prévoyance sociale. *Annuaire statistique. (France et Colonies) 1925.* Statistique générale de la France. 41ème vol. Paris, 1926. XLVIII + 371 pp.

Statistical year book (1925) for France and her colonies.

—— *Recueil de documents sur les accidents du travail.* No. 55. *Quinzième rapport sur l'application de la loi du 9 avril 1898. Années 1921 et 1922.* Paris, Imprimerie nationale, 1926. 98 pp. 12 frs.

Fifteenth report on the administration of the Act of 9 April 1898 concerning industrial accidents. Covers the years 1921 and 1922.

GERMANY

Statistisches Reichsamt. *Die Bewegung der Bevölkerung in den Jahren 1922 und 1923 und die Ursachen der Sterbefälle in den Jahren 1920 bis 1923.* Statistik des Deutschen Reichs. Band 316. Berlin, 1926. 90 + 132 pp.

—— *Die Krankenversicherung in den Jahren 1922 und 1923.* Statistik des Deutschen Reichs, Bd. 324. Berlin, Reimar Hobbing, 1926. 14 + 23 pp.

GREAT BRITAIN

Board of Education. *Second Report of the Standing Joint Committee representative of Local Education Authorities and Associations of Teachers on Scales of Salaries for Teachers in Technical and Art Schools in which the Local Education Authorities accept responsibility for the Salary Scales. England and Wales. February 1927.* London, H.M. Stationery Office, 1927. 30 pp. 3d.

—— **Adult Education Committee.** *Full-Time Studies.* Paper No. 7. London, H.M. Stationery Office, 1927. VI + 69 pp. 6d.

The President of the Board of Education constituted in April 1921 an Adult Education Committee to promote the development of liberal education for adults and, in particular, to bring together national organisations concerned with the provision of adult education, so as to secure mutual help and prevent overlapping and waste of effort. In the present report, which is the seventh issued by the Committee, a problem is considered which has been much discussed in the adult education movement, namely, the possibility of giving to selected students the opportunity of continuing their studies at a university or at some other institution which takes students on a full-time basis. Believing that the need for bringing adult students to the universities is urgent, the Committee proposes in the first part of this report to survey the attempts which are being made in this direction and to consider the problem of ways and means. In the second part the Committee proposes to consider other institutions for full-time studies, some of which act in close relation with universities, while others for a variety of reasons cannot establish any such relation or prefer not to do so.

Colonial Office. *Jamaica. Report for 1925.* Colonial Reports (Annual), No. 1327. London, H.M. Stationery Office, 1927. 26 pp. 1s. 0d.

—— *Report by H.B.M. Government to the Council of the League of Nations on the Administration of Tanganyika Territory for the year 1925.* Colonial No. 18. London, H.M. Stationery Office, 1926. 93 pp., map.

Department of Overseas Trade. *Report on the Economic and Financial Conditions in Germany 1925-1926.* By J. W. F. THELWALL and C. G. KAVANAGH. London, H.M. Stationery Office, 1926. 159 pp. 4s. 6d.

—— *Report on the Trade and Economic Conditions in the Canary Islands.* London, H.M. Stationery Office, 1927. 26 pp. 1s. 0d.

A short paragraph devoted to social questions calls attention to the bad housing conditions and the high cost of living in the islands. The infant mortality rate is stated to be high and emigration to Cuba and South America considerable.

Imperial Economic Committee. *Report on Marketing and Preparing for Market of Foodstuffs produced within the Empire.* (*a*) Second Report. *Meat.* 1925. 35 pp. 9d. (*b*) Third Report. *Fruit.* 1926. 274 pp. 4s. 6d. (*c*) Fourth Report. *Dairy Produce.* 1926. 147 pp. 1s. London, H.M. Stationery Office.

Attention was called to the first (general) report in this series in the *International Labour Review*, Vol. XIII, No. 5, November 1925, p. 737.

Medical Research Council. Industrial Fatigue Research Board. *The Effect of Eyestrain on the Output of Linkers in the Hosiery Industry.* By H. C. Weston and S. Adams. Report No. 40. London, H.M. Stationery Office, 1927. IV + 20 pp. 1s.

Many industrial processes demand for their effective performance the clear perception of fine detail, and continuous work of this nature tends to have a deleterious effect upon eyesight. The first requirement for fine industrial processes is good lighting, i.e. an adequate illumination and suitable arrangement of light sources. In some cases, however, the details are so exceptionally fine that illumination, however good, does not wholly eliminate the necessity of near vision with its concomitant disadvantages of excessive accommodation and convergence. Relief of the eyestrain involved can be secured only by the use of suitable lenses and prisms. The report under consideration describes the results of an investigation in the "linking" process in hosiery; they relate to three operatives over a period of four weeks. In each case a considerable increase in the rate of working, accompanied by a reduction of fatigue, was effected as a result of the use of suitable glasses. All the experimental subjects, states the report, continued to wear glasses after completion of the investigation, and no evidence could be obtained of any disturbance of normal vision when the glasses were discarded at the end of the working day.

Mines Department. Safety in Mines Research Board. *Laboratory Methods of determining the Inflammability of Coal Dusts. Historical Survey and Preliminary Examination of the Problems Involved.* By A. L. Golbert. Paper No. 31. London, H.M. Stationery Office, 1927. 68 pp. 1s. 6d.

Ministry of Agriculture and Fisheries. *Report on the Marketing of Poultry in England and Wales.* Economic Series No. 11. London, H.M. Stationery Office, 1926. VI + 122 pp., map. 6d.

Ministry of Health. *Persons in receipt of Poor Law Relief (England and Wales) on the night of 1 January 1926.* London, H.M. Stationery Office, 1926. 66 pp. 1s. 3d.

Ministry of Labour. *Report of the Delegation appointed to study Industrial Conditions in Canada and the United States of America.* London, H.M. Stationery Office, 1927. 117 pp. 1s. 0d.

Contains the results of the investigations made by a delegation appointed to consider industrial conditions in the United States and in Canada, with special reference to the relations between employers and employed, in their bearing upon industrial conditions in Great Britain. The report is in five parts, the first four being devoted to industrial conditions, industrial relations, conditions of wage earners and other aspects of industry (management, standardisation, research work, education, etc.) in the United States.

The fifth part is devoted to conditions in Canada and includes a paragraph on social legislation. A number of appendices are added.

The report will be analysed at greater length in the publications of the International Labour Office.

Permanent Consultative Committee on Official Statistics. Sub-Committee. *Statistics relating to Health and Mortality in the Mercantile Marine.* London, H.M. Stationery Office, 1926. 12 pp. 4d.

Report of the Industrial Assurance Commissioner for the year ended 31 December 1925. London, H.M. Stationery Office, 1926. 129 pp. 2s. 6d.

Treasury. *Sixty-Ninth Report of the Commissioners of His Majesty's Inland Revenue for the Year ended 31 March 1926.* London, H.M. Stationery Office, 1927. 113 pp. 2s. 0d.

NYASALAND PROTECTORATE

Report on the Census of 1926. By S. S. MURRAY. Zomba, Nyasaland, Govt. Printer, 1926. XLII + 165 pp.

ICELAND

Statistical Bureau of Iceland. *Manntal A Islandi 1. Desember 1920.* Hagskyrslur Islands 46 b. Reykjavík, Prentad i Prentsmidjunni Gutenberg, 1926. 183 pp.

Results of the census of the population of Iceland carried out 1 December 1920.

INDIA

India in 1925-1926. By J. COATMAN. Calcutta, Government of India Central Publication Branch, 1926. XVIII + 463 pp. Re. 1-14 or 3s. 3d.

The present volume maintains the high standard of its predecessors. It is an indispensable guide to the understanding of contemporary events in India, including the progress of social legislation and allied matters. The photographs and illustrative charts are an attractive feature.

ITALY

Cassa nazionale per le Assicurazioni sociali. *Rendiconto Generale dell'anno 1924.* Rome, 1926. 115 pp.

—— *Verbale delle adunanze tenute nei giorni 28, 29 et 30 Luglio 1925 dal Consiglio Superiore nella sede centrale dell'Istituto in Roma.* Terza Serie N° V. Rome. 137 pp.

—— *Verbale delle adunanze tenute il 16 et 17 Settembre 1925 dal Consiglio Superiore nella sede centrale dell'Istituto in Roma.* Terza Serie N° VI. Rome, 1926. 59 pp.

—— *Verbale delle adunanze tenute il 4 e il 5 Dicembre 1925 dal Consiglio Superiore nella sede centrale dell'Istituto in Roma.* Terza Serie N° VII. Rome, 1926. 62 pp.

Commissariato generale dell'Emigrazione. *Il trattamento degli stranieri nei vari paesi.* Rome, 1926. 142 pp.

JAPAN

Department of Railways. Minister's Secretariat. Labour Section. *An Outline of the Organisation and Operation of the Employees' Representative System of the Government Railways of Japan.* Tokyo, 1926. 43 pp.

Naikaku Tokei Kyoku. *Taisho 13 nen Nihon Teikoku Shiin Tokei.* Tokyo, 1925.

Statistics relating to Causes of Death in the Japanese Empire in 1924.

Naimu-sho Shakai Kyoku. *Shakai Jipyo Ichiran.* Tokyo, 1925.

General review of social work in Japan.

Shakai Kyoku. *Honpo shakai jigyo gaiyo.* Tokyo, 1926.

This report, published by the Department of the Interior, Bureau of Social Affairs, gives a brief account of the development and present condition of social work in Japan.

Tokioshi Tokei-ka. *Tokioshi oyobi kiuko choson Rodo Tokei Genpyo. Da Ikkai Rodo Tokei Jitchi Chosa.* Tokyo. 3 vols.

Labour statistics for the city of Tokyo and suburbs (first labour census). The figures are based on the census of 10 October 1924 and are published by the Tokyo Municipal Office.

NETHERLANDS

Departement van Arbeid, Handel en Nijverheid. *Negende Internationale Arbeidsconferentie gehouden te Genève, 7-24 Juni 1926.* Beknopt Verslag van den Technisch Adviseur der Regeeringsafgevaardigden, Dr. A. M. C. SANDBERG. The Hague, 1926. 28 pp. 40 cts.

Report on the ninth Session of the International Labour Conference held at Geneva 7-24 June 1926.

—— *Verslag over het Haventiezicht uitgeoefend in 1925.* The Hague, 1926. 61 pp.

Report on harbour inspection in the Netherlands for 1925.

—— **Hooge Raad van Arbeid.** *Jaarverslag over 1926.* The Hague, 1927. 9 pp.

Annual Report of the Superior Council of Labour for 1926.

Verslag Omtrent de Bemoeiingen der Gemeente Amsterdam in Arbeidszaken en de Verzekering tegen Werkloosheid over 1925. Amsterdam. 84 pp.

Report on the activities of the municipal authorities of Amsterdam in connection with insurance against unemployment and other matters affecting labour.

PERU

Ministerio de Hacienda y Comercio. Direcciôn General de Estadistica. *Extracto Estadistico del Peru 1925.* Lima, 1926. IX + 177 pp.

Statistics for 1925.

SERBS, CROATS, AND SLOVENES (KINGDOM OF THE)

Ministarstvo Socijalne Politike. *Izvestaj Inspekcije rada i parnih Kotlova Kraljevine Srba, Hrvata i Slovenaca o ujenom poslovanju u. g. 1925.* Belgrade, 1926.

Report of the Labour Inspectorate for 1925.

SWEDEN

Berättelse över Fastighetsnämndens verksamhet och Förvaltning ar 1925. Stadskollegiets Utlatanden och Memorial. Bihang 1926, Nr. 38. Stockholm. 90 pp., maps.

Report on the activities of the Real Estate Committee for the year 1925 published by the Stockholm Municipal Board.

K. Socialdepartementet. *Utredningar till belysande av arbetsfredsfragan.* Statens offentliga utredningar 1927 : 4. Stockholm, 1927. 387 pp.

Report on " Enquiries for throwing light on the problem of industrial peace " submitted to the Swedish Minister for Social Affairs. Contains no positive proposals, but consists mainly of detailed surveys of the development and present position of the question of industrial peace in Sweden, the organisation of employers and workers, collective agreements and their use for the prevention and settlement of labour disputes, methods of blockade and boycott in industrial disputes, conditions in those state and municipal undertakings in which the labour question is of some importance, and in certain branches of industry in which, during the last few years, the discussion of measures against strikes tending to injure the community have obtained particular prominence, such as hospitals, private railways, shipping and agriculture.

Finally, this report contains a lucid account, covering 140 pages, of foreign legislation (31 countries) on conciliation and arbitration in industrial disputes.

This comprehensive report also includes statistical information showing, for instance, the extent of employers' and workers' organisations, the number of stoppages of work during the period 1923-25, and the extension of collective agreements.

—— **Riksförsakringsanstalten.** *Riksförsäkringsanstalten ar 1925.* Sveriges Officiella Statistik, Försakringsväsen. Stockholm, Norstedt, 1926. 30 pp.

Report of the State Insurance Office for 1925.

Stockholms Stads Statistika Kontor. *Statistisk Arsbok für Stockholms Stad 1926.* Arg. LVII. Ny Följd 21. Stockholms Stads Statistisk. I. Arsbok. Stockholm, K. L. Beckmans Boktryckeri, 1926. XVIII + 236 pp.

Statistical yearbook for Stockholm 1926, published by the Municipal Statistical Service.

SWITZERLAND

BASLE

Vierzehnter Bericht des Ständigen Staatlichen Einigungsamtes des Kantons Basel-Stadt vom Jahre 1925. Sonderabdruck aus dem *Verwaltungsbericht des Regierungsrates des Kantons Basel-Stadt.* Basle. 16 pp.

UNION OF SOUTH AFRICA

Office of Census and Statistics. *Statistics of Production. Statistics of Factories and Productive Industries (excluding Mining and Quarrying) in the Union for the year 1923-24 (Ninth Industrial Census, 1925).* Pretoria, Govt. Printing and Stationery Office, 1926. LVIII + 95 pp. 7s. 6d.

NATAL

Provincial Audit Office. *Finance Accounts (Including Trust, Housing Loan and Village Water Supply Accounts), Teachers' Pension Fund Accounts, Appropriation Accounts and Stores Accounts for the Period 1 April 1925 to 31 March 1926, with the Provincial Auditor's Reports thereon.* Pietermaritzburg, 1926. 92 pp. 6s. 6d.

UNITED STATES

Department of Commerce. Bureau of Mines. *Smoke Abatement Investigation at Salt Lake City, Utah.* By Monnett OSBORN, G. St.J. PERROTT and H. W. CLARK. Bulletin No. 254. Washington, Govt. Printing Office, 1926. V + 98 pp. 30 cents.

Special interest attaches to the chapters on the determination of atmospheric impurities and the description of apparatus and methods employed.

—— *Suggestions for the Design of Electrical Accessories for Permissible Mining Equipment.* By L. C. ILSLEY and E. J. GLEIM. Bulletin No.258. Washington, Govt. Printing Office, 1926. IV + 47 pp. 15 cents.

Department of Labour. Bureau of Labour Statistics. *Decisions of Courts and Opinions affecting Labour, 1925.* Bulletin No. 417, Labour Laws of the U.S. Series. Washington, Govt. Printing Office, 1926. IX + 281 pp. 40 cents.

This bulletin is the twelfth in a series devoted to the presentation of decisions of courts on questions affecting labour, involving both common and statute law; it also includes opinions of the Attorney General interpreting the labour laws of the United States. Decisions of special interest and importance are given relating to the right of association, the contract of employment, employers' liability, hours, labour organisations, wages, and workmen's compensation. In sixteen of the cases analysed the constitutionality of the law was contested. As in former issues of the bulletin, the *National Reporter System*, published by the West Publishing Co., St. Paul, Minnesota, is the chief source for the material used. The statements and opinions are abridged, but essential points in the opinion requiring authoritative exactness are quoted.

This publication offers some analogy with the work just published by the International Labour Office under the title *International Survey of Legal Decisions on Labour Law*, in which are reviewed the judicial decisions of Germany, Great Britain, France and Italy. The two collections relate to the same year (1925), and are, in some respects, complementary.

—— —— *Proceedings of the Thirteenth Annual Convention of the Association of Governmental Labour Officials of the United States and Canada held at Columbus, Ohio, 7-10 June, 1926.* Bulletin No. 429, Miscellaneous Series. Washington, Govt. Printing Office, 1927. IX + 123 pp. 20 cents.

The subjects discussed include women in industry, employment, industrial safety and inspection. The bulletin gives the report of the secretary-treasurer, the reports of the various committees and the reports of new legislation in the various States submitted to the Congress.

—— —— *Proceedings of the Thirteenth Annual Meeting of the International Association of Public Employment Services held at Rochester, N.Y., 15-18 September 1925.* Bulletin No. 414, Employment and Unemployment Series. Washington, 1926. VI + 42 pp. 10 cents.

—— —— *Trade Agreements 1925.* Bulletin No. 419, Miscellaneous Series. Washington, Govt. Printing Office, 1926. IV + 151 pp. 25 cents.

The second bulletin of the U.S. Bureau of Labour Statistics devoted entirely to trade agreements. The first (No. 393) contained extracts from agreements made during 1923 and 1924; the second is devoted to agreements made during 1925 and gives besides the five main provisions — relating to the union shop, wages, hours, arbitration, and apprenticeship — those concerning other matters, an important one being unemployment. The eight-hour day is shown to be generally applied in organised industries. The 44-hour week is practically the rule in the building, clothing, metal, printing, and stone trades. For night work a 40-hour week is generally observed. In some trades a 40-hour week also obtains for day work.

—— —— *Union Scale of Wages and Hours of Labour, 15 May 1926.* Bulletin No. 431. Wages and Hours of Labour Series. Washington, Govt. Printing Office, 1927. III + 212 pp. 30 cents.

—— —— *Wages and Hours of Labour in the Slaughtering and Meat Packing Industry 1925.* Bulletin No. 421. Wages and Hours of Labour Series. Washington, Govt. Printing Office, 1927. 149 + IV pp. 25 cents.

—— **Children's Bureau.** (a) *Posture Clinics. Organisation and Exercises.* By Armin KLEIN, M.D. Publication No. 164. 32 pp., illustr. 15 cents. (b) *Posture Exercises. A Handbook for Schools and for Teachers of Physical Education.* By Armin KLEIN, M.D. and Leah C. THOMAS. Publication No. 165. 33 pp., illustr. 10 cents. Washington, Govt. Printing Office, 1926.

In the first of these two pamphlets Dr. Klein gives interesting particulars on posture clinics and corrective exercises designed for children suffering from the effects of defective posture. In the second the authors describe the exercises primarily intended for schools but adapted for training groups of children wherever proper direction is available. Both pamphlets are amply illustrated and contain a specimen form for posture study.

Federal Board of Vocational Education. *Administration of Civilian Vocational Rehabilitation. A Statement of Policies.* Bulletin No. 113. Civilian Vocational Rehabilitation Series No. 12. Washington, Govt. Printing Office, 1927. XI + 18 pp. 10 cents.

The Bulletin sets forth the policies followed by the Federal Board in interpreting and administering the National Civilian Vocational Rehabilitation Act.

CALIFORNIA

Commission of Immigration and Housing. *Annual Report, 1927.* Sacramento, 1927. 36 pp.

This report was analysed in the *Monthly Record of Migration*, May 1927.

NON-OFFICIAL PUBLICATIONS

Aftalion, A. *Monnaie, prix et change. Expériences récentes et théorie.* Paris, Recueil Sirey, 1927. VII + 353 pp.

The first part of this work is a history of currency developments in France and other European countries since 1914. The second part is devoted to the theory of money. The author examines the various theories advanced in the light of recent events, and, rejecting the quantitative theory, develops a psychological theory. The third part relates to exchange. Here again Mr. Aftalion criticises accepted theories, especially the theory of balance of accounts and the theory of parity of purchasing powers, and advances a psychological theory of exchange.

The work is well documented and remarkable for its original line of thought.

Agricultural Economics Research Institute. *The Rural Industries of England and Wales.* III. *Decorative Crafts and Rural Potteries.* By Helen E. Fitzrandolph and M. Doriel Hay. Oxford, The Clarendon Press, 1927. xi + 168 pp., illustr.

The third volume in a series containing the results of a survey of rural industries in England and Wales. A general note on the series appeared in the February 1927 issue of the *International Labour Review.*

Algemeene Nederlandsche Zuivelbond. *Verslag over het jaar 1925.* The Hague. 220 pp.

Annual Report of the Netherlands Dairy Workers' Union for 1925.

American Association of Social Workers. *Social Work. An Outline of its Professional Aspects.* No. 2. New York. 31 pp. 25 cents.

Association patronale suisse des constructeurs de machines et industriels en métallurgie. *Rapport annuel du Conseil et du Comité aux membres de l'Association, 1925.* Geneva.

Report of the Association of Swiss Machinery Manufacturers and Employers in the Metallurgical Trades for 1925.

Augé-Laribé, M. *Syndicats et coopératives agricoles.* Collection Armand Colin, Section d'histoire et sciences économiques. Paris, 1926. 211 pp.

" The present-day agricultural association ", writes the author, who is General Secretary of the French National Federation of Agricultural Associations, " is a comparatively recent social development. The oldest agricultural unions were formed some forty years ago. The more recent organisations are still in the stage of early development. The results which some have achieved we may consider as promising examples for others to follow. The present organisation is far from being complete. "

This excellent little book is designed both for the uninitiated who wish to be accurately informed, and for the leaders of the movement to whom the author suggests a critical examination of their work. " It is ", he says, " a straightforward report, inclined to suspicion and severity rather than complacence. " The first part, which is theoretical, considers co-operation in agricultural organisation and the question of the predominance of the unions and the independence of the co-operative societies. The second part is an exposition of methods and results, acts and projects ; it deals in turn with the working and the legal position of agricultural associations, their enumeration, the achievements of agricultural co-operation, the progress during the past forty years due to association, the principles of agricultural co-operation, agreements between agricultural co-operative societies and distributive co-operative societies. The author is a convinced advocate of understandings between producers and distributive co-operative societies. The agricultural union and the agricultural co-operative society are, he says, two sections of the same organisation. Neither can exist or flourish except it be conducted on strictly professional and non-political lines. A short bibliography is included.

Béranek, Josef. *Die Mängel des Genter Systems und sein Einfluss auf die Kranken- und Invaliden-Versicherung und auf die Krise der Bergarbeiter-Versicherung.* Teplitz-Schönau, 1926. 167 pp.

Translation in German, revised and brought up to date, of a work originally published in Czech, to which attention was drawn in the October issue of the *International Labour Review* (Vol. XIV, No. 4, p. 636).

Bihar and Orissa Co-operative Federation. *A Concise Report of the Working of the Development Branch of the Bihar and Orissa Co-operative Federation for the year 1925.* Patna, 1926. 67 pp.

It is recognised that one of the prime factors in the economic rebuilding of India is the necessity of reorganising the industry and trade of scattered cottage industries.

This Report contains a chapter on the assistance which may be rendered by co-operative societies to those employed in cottage industries, especially the

weavers, by enabling them to purchase raw materials, to standardise their produce, and to distribute it to better advantage.

—— *The Proceedings of the 8th Session of the Congress of the Bihar and Orissa Co-operative Federation held at Ranchi 6-8 April 1926.* Patna. 135 pp.

The Presidential Report to this Congress contains an account of the progress of the co-operative movement in India and lays down some possible lines of future development.

Blach, Dr. Julius. *Die Arbeits- und Lohnverhältnisse im Deutschen Buchdruckgewerbe 1914 bis 1925.* Halberstadt, H. Meyer's Buchdruckerei, 1926. XXIV + 449 pp.

Bloch, Dr. Franz. *Das Schulwesen der Tschechoslowakei.* Vol. II. *Die Fachschulen.* Stiepels Gesetz-Sammlung des Tschechoslowakischen Staates. Folge 35. Reichenberg, Gebr. Stiepel, 1926. 1067 pp.

The first volume of Dr. Bloch's work supplied information on secondary schools in Czechoslovakia. The second volume is a comprehensive manual containing information on technical schools, including schools for higher commercial studies, commercial schools, schools of agriculture and forestry, and technical courses for apprentices and agriculturalists. It also gives the legal provisions concerning technical training in force at April 1926, and the conditions of admission, duration of educational courses, certificates and diplomas granted, financial provisions, organisation (scholarships, holidays, excursions, etc.), and the curriculum in the different schools.

Bond van Ambtenaren in Dienst bij de Nederlandsche Spoorwegen. *Verslag over het Jaar 1926.* Utrecht. 173 pp.

Annual report of the Netherlands Union of Railway Clerks for 1926.

Brailsford, H. N., Hobson, John A., Creech Jones, A., and Wise, E. F. *The Living Wage.* London, Independent Labour Party Publication Department, 1926. 55 pp. 6d.

The adoption of a living wage is advocated, the amount of which would be calculated on the basis of medical researches and the results of family budget enquiries. A statistical investigation into the national income and its distribution is also urged. It is considered that the wage should be adequate for health and efficiency and also to meet the requirements of a cultural life. The living wage should be based on the guaranteed week of employment and should include a fortnight's holiday per annum at full pay.

It is proposed that an authoritative declaration should be made of the minimum to be applied within a measurable period. The wage would not be imposed by the state, but the state would make the conditions in which trade unions could demand it with every prospect of success. The authors recommend that the living wage should be accompanied by a state scheme of family allowances to be financed by direct taxation.

The whole scheme of the living wage and family allowances would, it is urged, bring about an increase in the present purchasing power of the working classes, and this would demand a considerable measure of reorganisation of industry. Suggestions are made regarding the provision of the capital necessary for this reorganisation and the special difficulties of the export industries are examined. It is considered that in order to regulate wages satisfactorily it would be necessary to regulate the prices of different commodities or, as an alternative, to subsidise certain industries. The control of credit for the purpose of keeping the general price level stable would also be involved. For the successful working of the system, the adoption by bankers and the Treasury of an enlightened credit policy which would abolish or greatly restrict the extent of trade cycle oscillations is presupposed.

British Institute of Adult Education. *The Handbook and Diary of Adult Education 1926-1927.* London, H. F. W. Deane and Sons. 190 pp. Paper 2s. 6d., cloth 3s. 6d.

Brookes, Edgar M. *The Political Future of South Africa.* Pretoria, J. L. van Schaik, 1927. 99 pp.

The problems of a country where there are five million Bantu, one and a half million whites, half a million coloured (chiefly of mixed descent) and two hundred thousand Indians are inevitably various ; their successful solution is vital to the future of white civilisation. Such a solution, Professor Brookes maintains, can be found in the application of the principle : " As wide a comprehension as possible, and full toleration for all those elements which cannot be comprehended. "

If this principle is followed he believes that it is not difficult to feel sanguine about the complete amalgamation of the whites at present divided into " Dutch " and " English ". With regard to the coloured, he advocates complete political and economic equality, for their comprehension appears possible whereas the creation for them of separate institutions is out of the question. The Indians, on the other hand, offer an occasion for toleration rather than comprehension and this toleration can be achieved by the granting of a communal franchise for the House of Assembly, the nomination of a Senator to represent their interests and the creation of an elected Advisory Council on Indian Affairs. With these problems solved, it will be possible for South Africa to approach the final test of its political future : the native question. Professor Brookes is of opinion that here General Hertzog's native policy promises the greatest hope of success. Comprehension may be the ultimate solution ; but for the present, Professor Brookes considers the Hertzog scheme, if the whites are willing to make the necessary sacrifices, will prove a wise temporary step and may lay the foundations for a future permanent policy.

In Europe the case against General Hertzog's native policy is fairly well known. The arguments in favour of its chief features have not obtained corresponding publicity. To those who desire a short but clear exposition of these arguments, Professor Brookes' series of essays can be warmly recommended.

Cada, Dr. F. *Ceskoslovenska Literatura Pravnicka a Statovedecka v Letech 1918-1925.* Prague, Bursik and Kohout, 1926. 254 pp.

Bibliography of works and articles on legal, sociological and economic subjects and of statistical publications in Czech issued during the period 1918-1925.

Cahn, Dr. Ernst. *Das Recht der deutschen Sozialversicherung nach dem neuesten Stande der Gesetzgebung.* Berlin, Lichterfelde, Verlag der " Arbeiter-Versorgung " A. Troschel, 1926. 201 pp.

Caisse nationale suisse d'assurance en cas d'accident. *Rapport annuel 1925* Lucerne. 57 pp.

Annual report of the Swiss Accident Insurance Fund for 1925 ; also published in German and in Italian.

Cavazza, Filippo. *La politica della Colonizzazione.* Milan, Mondadori, 1926. 53 pp.

This pamphlet, a reprint from the work entitled *La Rinascita della Tripolitania*, deals with the development of Tripoli by agricultural colonies. It contains interesting particulars on land grants — made in ever-increasing numbers — and on the activities of the Italian Government in the matter of technical assistance to settlers.

Celentano, Federigo. *La legge e il regolamento sui sindacati.* La legislazione fascista. Naples, Bideri, 1926. 69 pp.

A study on the Fascist law and regulations relating to trade unions.

Centraal Overleg in Arbeidszaken voor Werkgeversbonden. *Jaarverslag 1925.* Haarlem. 16 pp.

Annual Report of the Netherlands Central Council of Employers' Unions for Labour Questions for 1925.

—— *Overzicht der gebeurtenissen op arbeidsgebied gedurende 1926.* Haarlem. 40 pp.

A review of events in the field of labour during 1926, published by the Netherlands Central Council of Employers' Unions for Labour Questions.

Centrala Industriskih Korporacija Kraljevine Srba, Hrvata i Slovenaca U Beo-

gradu. *Izvestaj o zboru Centrale Industriskih Korporacija Kraljevine S. H. S. koji je odrzan 21. februara 1927. god. u Beogradu u prostorijama Centrale.* Belgrade, 1927. 32 pp.

Proceedings of the Congress of the Serb, Croat and Slovene Federation of Industrial Corporations held at Belgrade, 21 February 1927.

Centralni Sekretarijat Radnickih Komora. *Izvestaj o radu centralnog sekretarijata rednickih komora u Beogradu za vreme od 10 oktobra 1925 do 1 oktobra 1926 godina.* Belgrade, Stamparija Tucovic, 1926. 248 pp.

Annual Report on the activities of the General Secretariat of the Chamber of Labour for the period 1 October 1925 to 1 October 1926.

Chambre consultative des Associations ouvrières de production. *Compte rendu du IXe Congrès national de la coopération ouvrière de production de France tenu à Paris les 4 et 5 octobre 1926.* Versailles, 1927. 243 pp.

Report on the ninth national Congress of French workers' producers' co-operative societies held at Paris, 4-5 October 1926.

Chardon, Henri. *L'organisation de la République pour la paix.* Histoire économique et sociale de la guerre mondiale (série française). Publication de la dotation Carnegie pour la paix internationale. Paris, Les Presses universitaires de France ; New Haven, U.S.A., Yale University Press, 1926. XXVII + 163 pp. 18 frs.

Starting with the idea that preparations for war are inconsistent with the desire for peace and that the people wish for peace, Mr. Chardon considers how the French Republic should be organised to make it " an essential factor in the peace of Europe, and in world peace. " Attacking the problem in its technical aspect, he lays down the principle that " a democracy cannot live and develop with useful results for itself and for other peoples without two equally essential organs : a political power based on the suffrages of the majority... permitting the people as a whole to exercise sovereign control over public affairs and to remain master of its destiny, and an active or administrative power constituted by the selection of an *élite.* " The pitfall to avoid is the encroachment of the first on the sphere of the second, for internal and external peace are bound up with equilibrium between the political power of the many and the administrative power of the *élite.* Applying these fundamental ideas to the present French system, the author sets forth in the two chapters which form the bulk of the work the general principles on which, he considers, should be organised public services, parliamentary, ministerial and presidential control, and the activities of the Council of State. He suggests, among other reforms, the institution of an advisory national assembly based on occupational representation.

Cheyney, Alice S. *The Nature and Scope of Social Work.* New York, American Association of Social Workers, 1926. 57 pp. 50 cents.

Miss Cheyney points out that social work is not charity, but social work evolved from charity. The three developments which transformed charity into social work are, " (1) systematisation of service ; (2) an interest in causes of disaster, and (3) an extension of charitable interest into new fields. "

After a careful analysis, the author reaches the following definition of social work : " Social work includes all voluntary attempts to extend benefits which are made in response to a need, are concerned with social relationships, and avail themselves of scientific knowledge and methods. "

Chidell, Fleetwood. *Australia, White or Yellow.* London, William Heinemann, 1926. XIX + 235 pp.

The general thesis defended in this book is that a number of countries in Europe and Asia are looking for outlets for their surplus population, that a number of other countries, particularly Australia with which the author is more especially concerned, are, although very thinly populated, doing far too little to fill their empty spaces, and that this is a state of affairs which will inevitably lead to war unless steps are taken to remedy it. The measures which Mr. Chidell proposes are the organisation of large-scale emigration from Great Britain to Australia running into several hundreds of thousands per annum, and the setting aside o part of the northern territory for development by Asiatic labour. To use his own words, his aim has been " to show that migration can be carried out to such an extent and in such a manner as to make a very real improvement in the lives of

the people who will remain in Great Britain as well as in the lives of those who leave its shores, while bringing deliverance to those already overseas. And, farther, to make it clear that the alternative to a large migration includes among its consequences the domination by Asiatic people of the entire Western Pacific."

Christliche Gewerkschaften Deutschlands. *Niederschrift der Verhandlungen des II. Kongresses der Christlichen Gewerkschaften Deutschlands abgehalten vom 9. bis 20. April 1926 in Dortmund.* Berlin-Wilmersdorf, 1926. 540 pp.

Clark, John. *Social Control of Business.* Chicago, The University of Chicago Press ; Toronto, Macmillan ; London, Cambridge University Press, 1926. XVIII + 483 pp.

Cohn, Alfred. *Die Zahnheilkunde in der öffentlichen Gesundheitspflege.* Leipzig, J. A. Barth, 1926. 261 pp.

A study on dentistry in relation to public health. An important chapter is devoted to occupational affections of the mouth and teeth and hygiene in dentistry.

Comité central des allocations familiales. *VIe Congrès national des allocations familiales, Marseille, Toulon, Cannes, Nice, 10-13 mai 1926.* Compte rendu. Lille and Paris. 199 pp.

Sixth Congress of the French Central Committee for Family Allowances held at Marseilles, Toulon, Cannes, and Nice, 10-13 May 1926.

Cooperative Operaie di Trieste, Istria e Friuli. *Ventidue anni di attività 1903, 1925.* Trieste, 1926.

Copland, D. B. *Monetary Policy and its application to Australia.* Melbourne, University Press and Macmillan and Co., 1926. 23 + 40 pp.

Dansk Handels- og Kontormedhjaelperforbund. *Beretning for Kongres- og Regnskabsperioden 1. April 1922-31. Marts 1925.* Udgivet af Hovedbestyrelsen. Copenhagen, Anton M. Jensen, 1925. 174 pp.

Report of the Danish Union of Shop Assistants and Clerks, 1 April 1922 to 31 March 1925.

—— *Protokol over Dansk Handels- og Kontormedhjaelperforbunds 9. ordinaere Kongres afholdt i Arbejdernes Forsamlingsbygning Amaliegade, Aarhaus den 20 21 og 22 September 1925.* Copenhagen, 1925. 171 pp.

Proceedings of the Congress of the Danish Union of Shop Assistants and Clerks held at Aarhuus, 20-22 September 1925.

Davies, The Rev. Gwilym. *International Education in the Schools of Wales and Monmouthshire, 1922-1926.* Wrexham, Wales, Hughes and Son, 1926. 25 pp. 3d.

In January 1921, the Central Welsh Board, which is the authority for intermediate education in Wales, issued a circular to the head teachers of County Schools drawing their attention to the desirability of bringing the object and importance of the League of Nations to the notice of their pupils, and, as the outcome of a subsequent conference of educationists, the Welsh Advisory Education Committee was set up. The above pamphlet gives an account of the activities of the Committee in Wales and Monmouthshire for the period 1922-1926.

Dearle, Norman. *The Cost of Living.* London, Philip Allan and Co., 1926. 183 pp.

Dersch, Dr. Hermann ; Flatow, Dr. Georg ; Hueck, Dr. Alfred ; Nipperdey, Dr. Hans Karl. *Die Rechtsprechung des Reichsgerichts zum Arbeitsrecht.* Vol. I. *Das Kollektive Arbeitsrecht und das Arbeitsvertragsrecht von 1919-1926.* Mannheim, Berlin and Leipzig, J. Bensheimer, 1926. 411 pp.

The first volume of this collection, devoted to the German Federal Court's interpretation of labour laws, deals with general labour legislation and legislation relating to the labour contract. Dr. Nipperdey considers the latter ; Dr. Dersch deals with arbitration in labour disputes, procedure of industrial courts, and trade associations ; Dr. Flatow with works councils, and Dr. Hueck with the labour contract. Court decisions are not only quoted but also analysed. The period reviewed, 1919-1926, was marked by a considerable development in labour legis

lation, culminating in the issue of a new labour code. Special interest therefore attaches to the volume under consideration. An index to the seventy-five decisions analysed and the publications in which the text of these decisions will be found facilitates reference.

Deumer, Dr. *Das deutsche Genossenschaftswesen.* Sammlung Göschen. Berlin and Leipzig, Walter de Gruyter, 1926. 136 pp.

A general review of the co-operative movement in Germany.

Deutscher Handwerks- und Gewerbekammertag und Reichsverband des deutschen Handwerks. *Bericht über die Wirtschaftslage des Handwerks in der Zeit vom 1. April bis 30. September 1926.* Hanover, 1927. 49 pp.

Report on the position of German handicraftsmen for the period 1 April to 30 September 1926, published by the German Chamber of Arts and Crafts and the German Federation of Employers of Handicraftsmen.

Deutscher Internationaler Anwalt-Verband. *Jahresbericht 1926.* Berlin. 27 pp.

Annual Report of the German International Advocates' Association for 1926.

Dittmer, Emil. *Zur Organisationsfrage der deutschen Gewerkschaften.* Materialien und Unterlagen zum Organisationsproblem unter Berücksichtigung der Beschlüsse des 10. Verbandstages der Gemeinde- und Staatsarbeiter sowie des Breslauer Gewerkschaftskongresses. Schriften zur Aufklärung und Weiterbildung, No. 20. Berlin, Verband der Gemeinde- und Staatsarbeiter. 54 pp.

A study on trade union organisation in Germany.

Empire Parliamentary Association, Malta Branch. *Visit of Delegation from the United Kingdom Branch. Report of the Conference held between the Delegation and the Members of the Malta Branch in Parliament Hall, Friday, 28 January 1927.* Malta, Govt. Printing Office, 1927. 62 pp.

A record of an informal conference which took place between a visiting delegation from the United Kingdom branch of the Empire Parliamentary Association and the members of the Malta Branch of the Association in Parliament Hall on 28 January 1927. This Conference dealt with the position of Malta in the British Empire with special reference to migration and development.

Fiddes, Sir George V. *The Dominions and Colonial Offices.* The Whitehall Series, edited by Sir James Marchant, K.B.E., LL.D. London and New York, G. P. Putnam's Sons, 1926. 288 pp.

An interesting and useful account, by a former Permanent Under-Secretary of State for the Colonies, of the organisation and work of the British Colonial Office.

Fisher, Irving. *Prohibition at its Worst.* New York, Macmillan, 1926. 255 pp.

A book by a distinguished economist on a social question which is both important and controversial is bound to raise considerable interest in many quarters. Professor Fisher states that his work embodies the notes which he has been collecting on the alcohol problem for twenty years, during which he has radically changed his attitude towards prohibition. Before the war the author was convinced, by the experience of the Western States, that " prohibition is the ultimate solution " ; he now considers that its introduction was premature and that " prohibition has been at its worst " during the last few years, but he is still in favour of it. His object is to justify this opinion by weighing carefully all the relevant facts, whether good or bad. The book, which includes elaborate statistics and excellent charts, is divided into thirteen chapters dealing with the social effects of prohibition, and the legal and moral questions involved in its enforcement. Hygienic, economic, and social good, the author maintains, has resulted from its introduction, and, although the present situation of enforcement is intolerable, the conditions are not so bad as commonly represented ; prohibition " is actually accomplishing its main purpose of suppressing the saloon and lessening the use of alcohol " ; hence the enforcement of the 18th Amendment he declares to be both necessary and a practical possibility.

The book may be regarded as an authoritative and reliable record of facts relating to what is generally admitted to be one of the greatest social experiments of our time.

Fonds national de retraite des ouvriers mineurs. *Compte rendu des opérations, année 1925.* Brussels.

Report of the Belgian miners' pension fund for 1925.

Ford, Henry. *Aujourd'hui et Demain.* Avec la collaboration de Samuel Crowther. Traduit de l'anglais par L. P. Alaux et P. Hollard. Paris, Payot, 1926. 349 pp. 20 frs.

Translation into French of the book "To-day and To-morrow" analysed below.

—— *To-day and To-morrow.* In collaboration with Samuel Crowther. London, William Heinemann, 1926. 281 pp.

An interesting sequel to Mr. Ford's *My Life and Work* analysed in the *International Labour Review*, Vol. VIII, No. 1, July 1923. A large part of the book is devoted to a description of the technical progress achieved in the undertakings conducted under his direction, and may be usefully consulted by all interested in the scientific organisation of production. Mr. Ford also examines important economic and social problems, in particular the question of high wages and hours. High wages and low prices, he contends, mean greater buying power, create customers among the workers, and facilitate disposal of the product placed on the market. In the chapter entitled "Turning back to village industry" he outlines his views on decentralisation. Other subjects touched upon are labour troubles, education, charity, the institution of a hospital for workers and the Henry Ford Hospital School of Nursing and Hygiene, the intervention of Providence, etc. What makes the interest of Mr. Ford's ideas is that they are not mere abstract theories, but that they have been applied, at least partially and apparently with success, in his own undertakings. A partisan of the eight-hour day, Mr. Ford has even introduced in his factories the five-day week. He is convinced that industry has a real mission of social service, but he is no believer in mere paternalism. "No service to employees", he says, "will take the place of wages." The conclusion to be drawn from this book is that industry can only play its appointed part through a thoroughly scientific organisation of production.

Foster, Wm. Z. *Russian Workers and Workshops in 1926.* Labour Herald Library No. 16. Chicago, Trade Union Educational League, 1926. 60 pp. 25 cents.

Frankel, Herbert. *Co-operation and Competition in the Marketing of Maize in South Africa.* London, P. S. King and Son, 1926. xi + 144 pp.

Although the subject of this study is primarily that of the marketing of maize in South Africa, it deals largely with the question of competitive trade *versus* co-operation, the attempt of the South African Government to introduce the latter system, and the need for an unbiased study of marketing machinery before any steps are taken to improve or shorten the process. A bibliography of books and papers on the matters discussed is appended.

Frei, Dr. *Die Zeichner- und Techniker-Berufe. Mit Nachweis von Studienkosten und Berufseinkommen.* Zurich, Verlag des Schweizer. Technikerverbandes. 67 pp.

Monograph on draughtsmen in various occupations (architects, surveyors, electricians, etc.) and technicians (constructors, engineers, electricians, chemists, etc.). After emphasising the importance of these callings the author indicates the main lines of the necessary training for each, aptitudes required, period and cost of studies, prospects, etc. The pamphlet is designed for vocational advisers, teachers, parents and young persons.

Freimüller, Dr. E. *Das Arbeiterbildungswesen in der Schweiz.* Reprinted from *Schweiz. Zeitschrift für Volkswirtschaft und Sozialpolitik.* Berne, Steiger, 1925. 26 pp.

General Federation of Trade Unions. *Proceedings and Reports from July 1925 to June 1926.* London, 1926. 53 pp.

Gewerkschafts-Kommission Oesterreichs. *Die Arbeiterkammern in Oesterreich, 1921-1926.* Vienna, Verlag der "Arbeit und Wirtschaft", 1926. 191 pp.

The pamphlet published by the Austrian Trade Union Committee gives a

detailed account of the work of the Austrian workers' and employees' chambers during the first five years of their activity. These chambers, founded in June 1920, are entitled to give their opinion on all legal questions affecting workers or employees. They may also, in certain cases specified by law, collaborate with social institutions and found educational establishments.

Gheerbrandt, J. L. *La législation sur les accidents du travail aux colonies. Un premier stade d'application aux Antilles et à la Réunion.* Paris, Editions de l'Institut colonial français, 1926. 27 pp.

A survey of the application in the French colonies of the Act on industrial accidents which came into force on 1 January 1927 in Martinique, Guadeloupe and Réunion. Its extension to other French colonies is under consideration.

Goerrig, Dr. Franz. *Das Arbeitsrecht in der Praxis.* IV. Band. *1. Halbjahr 1926.* Munich and Berlin, R. Oldenburg, 1926. 256 pp.

The 1924 edition of this half-yearly review — a practical guide to German labour legislation — was analysed in the *International Labour Review*, Vol. XII, No. 3, September 1925, p. 449.

Gooden, Orville Thrasher. *The Missouri and North Arkansas Railroad Strike.* Studies in History, Economics, and Public Law, No. 275. Edited by the Faculty of Political Science of Columbia University. New York, Columbia University Press, 1926. 274 pp. $5.00.

Grard, M. A. *La Grisoumétrie dans les Mines de la Sarre.* Reprinted from the *Revue de l'Industrie Minérale*, 1 and 15 December 1926. Saint-Etienne, Imprimerie Théolier, 1927. 23 pp.

A description of the apparatus for the detection of fire-damp in the Sarre coal mines.

Gray, Alexander. *Family Endowment. A Critical Analysis.* London, Ernest Benn, 1927. 136 pp. 4s. 6d.

This is a diverting book, and, at the same time, one of the severest criticisms of the family endowment system that has yet been published. The author's purpose is to raise doubts regarding the system and to suggest that the question " requires greater consideration than it has yet received from those who argue in its support ". Continental schemes are regarded as not throwing much light on the fundamental problems of family endowment, since the allowances made have been much lower than those required to maintain the children in respect of whom they are paid.

In the author's opinion " there is abundant evidence that there is only one method which has the double merit of satisfying the ideals of Family Endowment and of being free from the fatal defects which would make any other scheme an unsatisfactory halting-place. That solution is the one which makes allowanecs a charge on the national revenue. " The author also considers that if there is any virtue in the principle of family endowment, the allowances paid should be adequate for maintenance. This implies the transfer of the economic burden of the family from the individual to the whole community. A consequence would be the complete supersession of parental responsibility ; the mother would, indeed, be no more than Society's trustee for the bearing and nurture of the State's children. It is also argued that the payment of adequate allowances would be likely to result in an increase in the birth rate, especially owing to the encouragement which would be given to early marriages. This may be a reason for developing the family endowment system in France, Australia, and other countries where an increase in population is desired. It constitutes a disadvantage in countries already overpopulated.

The author's conclusion is that " in moderate doses, Family Endowment may be innocuous ; in certain special circumstances the application of the underlying principles might even, within limits, be advantageous ". The gravest doubts are expressed regarding the desirability of a comprehensive national scheme.

Grünberg, Dr. Siegmund. *Das österreichische Angestelltenrecht.* Herausgegeben vom Bund der Industrieangestellten Oesterreichs. Vienna, F. Deuticke, 1926. XII + 288 pp.

This manual of Austrian law relating to employees, published under the auspices of the Austrian Federation of Industrial Employees, sets forth and comments on its provisions more thoroughly than any work of the kind published hitherto. Holding that the legal interpretation put upon these provisions is of first importance, the author analyses a large number of court decisions. Special mention may be made of the chapters relating to holidays, percentage on sales, unfair competition and inventions by employees.

Guillaume, André. *Un Conseil paritaire de conciliation dans une manufacture. Sept années de fonctionnement.* Paris, Librairie des Sciences politiques et sociales Marcel Rivière, 1927. XXI + 168 pp.

A careful and very complete account of the conciliation council in the Pernot Biscuit Company first set up in 1919 which, the author claims, is the only joint conciliation council in existence in France where the two sides are equally represented.

This interesting experiment in the conduct of industrial relations is studied in all its aspects. An historical sketch leading up to the formation of the council is followed by chapters dealing respectively with its composition, its competence, the procedure adopted, questions of jurisprudence and the influence which the Council exercises. In the final chapter the advantages of and the objections to the conciliation council are examined ; the conclusion reached is that such councils are an invaluable factor in industrial peace, and, being entirely compatible with the French temperament, are eminently suitable for further development in France.

A statistical appendix showing the results of the Pernot council, a useful bibliography, international in its scope, and a rapid but comprehensive review of other conciliation councils both in France and elsewhere are other features of this monograph deserving special mention.

Hall, Fred. *Standard Co-operative Book-keeping.* Part II. Manchester, Co-operative Union, 1926. XVI + 519 pp.

While Part I. of this work dealt with the recording of the transactions of small co-operative societies, the present volume considers the accounting needs of large societies with several departments and branches. At the same time it is intended to serve as a text book for students. An appendix contains specimen forms of accounting and standard balance sheets.

Hambly, W. D. *Tribal Dancing and Social Development.* Preface by Charles Hose. London, H. F. and G. Witherby, 1926. 296 pp., photographs, sketches and map.

Hamburger, Dr. L. *Die Theorie von den Subjekten und Mitgliedern der Völkerrechtsordnung und die Internationale Arbeitsorganisation.* Reprinted from *Niemeyers Zeitschrift für Internationales Recht*, Bd. XXXVI, pp. 117-196. Kiel, Institut für internationales Recht, 1926.

In the first part of his study Dr. Hamburger does not present the problem examined under an entirely new aspect, but reviews and compares opinions emitted on the question who is subject to, and who is member of, the international community. His exposition, which contains many references to the literature on the subject, is a preparation for the study of the legal nature of the International Labour Organisation, which he reserves for the second part. In the latter the author makes a critical analysis of the literature dealing with the question, and reveals a thorough understanding of the ideas and the legal machinery on which the rules of the Organisation are based. He defends, like many authors, the thesis of the autonomy of the International Labour Organisation considered in relation to the League of Nations (pp. 153 *et seq.*), and, moreover, develops the idea that a Draft Convention voted by the International Labour Conference, and ratified by a State Member, engenders a contractual relation between the ratifying State and the International Labour Organisation as such. It is especially by these two theses, and by the arguments advanced in their favour, that Dr. Hamburger's work brings a welcome contribution to the study of the legal nature of the International Labour Organisation, and opens the way to further investigations.

Hansson, Sigfrid. *Die Gewerkschafts-Bewegung in Schweden.* Internationale

Gewerkschafts-Bibliothek, Heft 6. Amsterdam, Verlag des Internationalen Gewerkschaftsbundes, 1927. 63 pp.

A study on the trade union movement in Sweden.

Hauptverband der Industrie Oesterreichs. *Tätigkeitsbericht über das erste Halbjahr 1926.* Vienna. 38 pp.

Report of the Austrian Federation of Industries for the first half-year 1926.

Hauschild, Dr. *Der vorläufige Reichswirtschaftsrat 1920-1926.* Denkschrift. Berlin, E. L. Mittler und Sohn, 1926. 687 pp.

Detailed analysis of the work of the Federal Economic Council instituted in Germany by the Order of 4 May 1920. The object of the book is outlined in a short preface, which examines the competence, organisation and procedure of the Council and the work it has already accomplished. The chapters which follow contain an objective exposition of the work of the different committees and give their decisions and opinions. The more important chapters relate to the committees on financial and economic policy, on housing and on home colonisation. The study concludes with appreciative comments on the useful work achieved by the Council. A detailed bibliography of works relating to economic councils, chiefly published in German, is appended.

Hirsch, Julius. *Das Amerikanische Wirtschaftswander.* Berlin, S. Fischer, 1926. 275 pp.

Holer, Dr. C. *Berufsverband und Staat. Eine soziologische Studie.* Zurich, A. Rudolf, 1926. IV + 107 pp.

Dr. Holer examines the problem of the incorporation of trade unions in the state. After passing in review a number of suggested solutions, such as the autonomous system, the compulsory union, the parliament of trade unions, he concludes that a complete solution is impossible. He proposes, however, certain reforms aiming at regulated co-operation between trade unions and the state with a view to the enactment and enforcement of social laws and the regulation of collective agreements.

Hünerwadel, Dr. Hans. *Die Wöchnerin im Schweizerischen Arbeitsrecht und in der Schweizerischen Krankenversicherung.* Fragen der Sozialversicherung, Heft 4, herausgegeben vom Konkordat der schweizerischen Krankenkassen. Berne and Leipzig, Ernst Bircher, 1926. 28 pp.

Contains the text of the Swiss federal and cantonal laws relating to expectant mothers and women in childbirth and maternity insurance with a brief commentary.

Ilieff, I. H. *Rabotnitchsko sindikalno dvigenié v Balgaria.* Sofia, 1927. 170 pp. 50 leva.

Historical study on the controversy between reformist trade unionism and revolutionary trade unionism in Bulgaria. The author, who has taken an important part in the labour movement, examines the social legislation and the struggle of trade unionism in that country during the past thirty years.

Information Bureau on Women's Work. *Rooms.* Toledo, Ohio, 1927. 23 pp.

The report relates to the boarding houses of Toledo, Ohio, the employed women who live in them, and the landladies who keep them. Though confined to the city of Toledo it should be of more than local interest, as cheap boarding houses, and the problems to which life in such places gives rise, are much the same everywhere.

Innes, Kathleen A. *The League of Nations and the World's Workers. An Introduction to the Work of the International Labour Organisation.* London, Hogarth Press, 1927. 48 pp. 1s. 6d.

This booklet is intended for use by students in training colleges, older children at school and all groups interested in the work of the League of Nations. It describes the International Labour Office, the Conference, relations with the Secretariat of the League, the work of the Office and the guiding principles according to which it is carried out.

Institute of Industrial Welfare Workers. *Annual Report for the Year ending 30 June 1926.* London. 12 pp.

One of the aims of the Institute of Industrial Welfare Workers is to promote among its members a wider knowledge of welfare principles and administration. The annual report for 1926 describes a scheme for study by correspondence launched by the Council.

International Institute of Teachers College, Columbia University. *Educational Yearbook 1925.* Edited by I. L. KANDEL, M.A., Ph.D. New York, Macmillan, 1926. XVI + 553 pp.

This is the second *Educational Yearbook* issued by the Institute. The volume for 1924 examined twelve national systems of education ; the volume for 1925 contains articles on the educational systems of another eleven countries, their historical origins and development, and continues from the previous issue the accounts of the progress of education in England, France, Germany and the United States.

Jadesohn, Dr. and Pothoff, Dr. Heinz. *Die gesamte Rechtsprechung des Arbeitsrechtes 1914-1925*, mit einem Anhang : *Nachweisung der Rechtsprechung, 1926.* Stuttgart, J. Hess, 1927. XXXI + 246 pp.

Four thousand court decisions relating to labour, rendered in the course of twelve years, served as a basis in the preparation of this volume. In 2,877 paragraphs of a few lines, numbered and bearing an indication of the decisions referred to, are enumerated the principles laid down by the German courts during the period covered. These principles are arranged under the following headings : labour in general, assistance to workers, collective agreements, individual contracts, labour organisations, labour protection, labour disputes. An appendix is devoted to the decisions of 1926. Consultation is facilitated by a detailed table of contents and a series of indexes : index to abbreviations, index to laws to which the decisions quoted refer, and index to courts, arbitration bodies and administrative organisms by which the decisions are rendered. This work should prove a mine of information to all interested in recent labour law in Germany.

Japan Year Book. Complete cyclopaedia of general and statistical information on Japan and Japanese territories for the year 1926. Compiled by Y. TAKENOBU. Tokyo, The Japan Year Book Office. XII + 629 + 174 pp., map.

Kandeler, Dr. Hermann. *Die Stellung der Berufsverbände im öffentlichen Recht.* Berlin, Carl Heymann, 1927. XII + 105 pp.

A study on the position of trade unions in German law.

Kaskel, Dr. Walter. *Rechtsfälle aus dem Arbeitsrecht. Mit einer kurzen Anleitung zur Bearbeitung arbeitsrechtlicher Fälle.* Sammlung von Rechtsfällen zum Gebrauch bei Uebungen. Berlin, Springer, 1926. VIII + 58 pp. 2.40 marks.

Following the plan adopted in his " Collection of legal problems connected with social insurance " published in collaboration with Brunn, Mr. Kaskel lays before the student a hundred concrete problems of labour law, prefaced by a short explanation as to the method enjoined for their solution. The selection of problems is a happy one. They are arranged in six chapters : 5 among these problems relate to general legal principles, 15 to collective agreements, 8 to placing, 44 to the labour contract, 9 to labour protection, 6 to the right of association and coalition and to works councils, and 2 only to labour disputes.

Kokusai Rodo Kyokai. *Kokusai Rodo Kyokai no Soshiki-Mokuteki-Jigyo.* Tokyo, 1926.

Describes the organisation, aims and work of the Japanese Association for International Labour Legislation.

Kubista, Dr. H. *Státni Podpore Stavebniho Ruchu u nas a v Cizině.* Publications of the Prague Social Institute, No. 29. Prague, 1926. 20 pp.

Dr. Kubista, chief of the housing section in the Czechoslovak Ministry of Social Welfare, reviews the building policy of the following countries : Czechoslovakia,

Great Britain, Belgium, Denmark, Finland, France, the Netherlands, Italy, Hungary, Germany, Austria, Spain, Switzerland and the United States.

Labour Co-partnership Association. *Fortieth Report 1925.* London. 26 pp. 3d.

League for Industrial Democracy. *New Tactics in Social Conflict.* Edited by H. W. LAIDLER and Norman THOMAS. New York, Vanguard Press, 1926. x + 230 pp.

A collection of addresses and discussions at the 1926 Conference of the League for Industrial Democracy, dealing with property ownership and control, labour banking, company unions, trade combinations, American economic imperialism, natural resources, and methods of propaganda.

Levenbach, Marius G. *Arbeidsrecht als deel van het Recht.* Amsterdam, H. J. Paris, 1926. 35 pp.

A study on labour law.

Lindrath, Dr. Hermann. *Das Arbeitsrecht des kaufmännischen Angestellten in Frage und Antwort.* Halberstadt, H. Meyer, 1926. 111 pp.

In the form of questions and answers well adapted to the reader unfamiliar with the subject, Dr. Lindrath gives a good general description of German labour legislation relating to shop assistants and commercial employees. Although this work does not pretend to any scientific merit, it is interesting since it relates to a branch of labour law on which, notwithstanding its great development in Germany since the war, no recent complete study has appeared.

Malynski, Emmanuel. *Le système économique de l'avenir.* Paris, Editions hispano-françaises, Librairie Cervantès, 1926. 460 pp. 15 frs.

The author outlines a new economic system based, he says, on the free interplay of " natural economic laws ".

Mariol, Henri. *Abrégé de législation coloniale.* Préface de M. Edouard DALADIER. Deuxième édition, revue et mise à jour à la date du 1er novembre 1926. Paris, Emile Larose, 1927. II + 296 pp.

This summary of legislation gives an excellent idea of the administration and the legal, economic and financial régime in the French colonies.

Mauldon, F. R. E. *A Study in Social Economics. The Hunter River Valley, New South Wales.* W.E.A. Series. Melbourne, Workers' Educational Association of N.S.W. and Robertson and Mullens, 1927. v + 201 pp. 12s. 6d.

An interesting study in local economic history and social conditions by a former District Tutor for the University of Sydney in the Hunter River Valley, of which Newcastle, N.S.W., is the principal port and market. The aim of this book is " to describe and analyse the industrial life of the people of the Hunter River Valley ; to trace the necessary relationships between them and the material conditions encircling them ; to discover in what ways these conditions are affecting them and how they, in turn, are modifying their environment. " The chapter dealing with coal-mining is perhaps the most valuable from an international standpoint.

Maus, Isidore. *L'application de la loi du 15 mai 1912 sur la protection de l'enfance de 1913 à 1925.* Extrait de la *Revue du Droit pénal et de Criminologie,* February 1927. Louvain, Pierre Mafrans. 15 pp.

A report by the Director General of the Belgian Child Welfare Office supplementing the report referred to below. It gives very complete statistics of child delinquency in Belgium and deals with the application of the child welfare law of 15 May 1912. The period covered is from 1913 to 1925 ; statistics are given for 1913 (i.e. for the first complete year's working after the law came into force), 1920 (the first normal post-war year), 1924 and 1925. Among the matters concerning which comparative statistics are given are children removed from the custody of their parents, cases brought before the children's courts, children placed in institutions and under observation, and abnormal children. An interesting section replies to a question often asked as to what becomes of these young offenders in after life ? It shows that 70 per cent. of them become respectable citizens and that by the time they are 26 years old most of them have married and settled down.

—— *L'Office belge de la protection de l'enfance.* Communication faite devant une mission d'étude de la Société des Nations. Reprinted from the *Revue du Droit pénal et de Criminologie*, January 1927. Louvain, Pierre Mafrans. 55 pp.

The Belgian Child Welfare Office is placed under the control of the Ministry of Justice and is concerned more particularly with the moral welfare of children. In this report the Director General of the Office explains why it was established and what are its principal fields of activity. The characteristic features of the Belgian child welfare law of 15 March 1912 are examined and the methods employed in Belgium for dealing with young offenders are reviewed. Other matters coming within the competency of the Office and dealt with shortly in this report are. the censorship of cinematograph films, various branches of social activity, the traffic in women and children and international child welfare.

Morley, Felix. *Our Far Eastern Assignment.* Introduction by the Hon. Henry Morgenthau. New York, Doubleday Page and Co., 1926. xiv + 185 pp.

A study on Japan, China and the Philippine Islands and the part they play in America's international problems.

National Adult School Union. *Annual Report, Statement of Accounts, Balance Sheet, and List of Subscribers for the Year 1926.* London. 27 pp.

National Association of Manufacturers. *Thirty-First Annual Convention, New York, 5-7 October 1926.* New York. 351 pp.

National Consumers' League. *Children's Compensation for Industrial Accidents.* How the States love their Children, No. 1. A preliminary Study, 1926. By Florence and Dorothy W. Kelley. New York.

National Farmers' Union. *Co-operative Bacon Factory Industry. Report of a Committee of Investigation appointed by the National Farmers' Union.* N.F.U. No. 31. London, 1926. 72 pp. 6d.

This report embodies the findings of a Special Committee set up to enquire into the economic position of the co-operative bacon factory industry in England and the conditions affecting it. In submitting its conclusions, the Committee emphasised the fact that farmers' co-operative bacon factories make a greater demand on capital, technical skill and commercial capacity than any other form of agricultural co-operative marketing in England. The questions of the supply of raw material, technical organisation, foreign competition and marketing are discussed in some detail. An appendix contains suggested alterations and additions to the model rules for co-operative bacon factory societies.

National Industrial Conference Board. *The Agricultural Problem in the United States.* New York, 1926. xiii + 157 pp., charts.

Attention was drawn to this study in the February 1927 issue of the *International Labour Review.* In the introduction the authors give a short, well set out description of the present state of agriculture in the United States. It is their opinion that, although the position of the agricultural industry since 1920 has, in large part, been due to the profound disturbances of the war period, since the beginning of this century conditions have arisen which have tended unfavourably to affect the relative position of the industry as a whole. This has been reflected in the contraction of agricultural "plant" and its output in relation to population growth ; in the increasing effectiveness of foreign competition in both foreign and domestic markets ; in the relatively greater increase in production costs per unit than in prices per unit ; and in the declining relative per capita share in the national income of persons engaged in agriculture. These symptoms are carefully analysed, but no fundamental conclusion with regard to what are the underlying reasons for this development is reached.

—— *The Cost of Living in the United States, 1914-1926.* New York, 1926. xvi + 233 pp.

Nederlandsche Bond van Arbeiders in het Landbouw-, Tuinbouw- en Zuivelbedrijf. *Verslag van de Algemeene Vergadering, gehouden op 14 en 15 mei 1925, in het Gebouw voor Kunsten en Wetenschappen te Utrecht.* Utrecht. 14 pp.

Report on the general meeting of the Netherlands Union of Agricultural and Dairy Workers, held at Utrecht, 14-15 May 1925.

Nederlandsch Verbond van Vakvereenigingen. *Twaalfde Verslag van den Toestand en de Werkzaamheden over het Tijdvak van 1 Januari 1924 tot 31 December 1925.* Rotterdam. 264 pp.

Annual Report of the Netherlands Federation of Trade Unions for the period 1 January 1924 to 31 December 1925.

Nihon Rodo Sodomei Shuppan-Bu and Sangyo Rodo Chosa-Sho. *Rodo Nenkan 1925.* Tokyo.

The labour year book for 1925 issued by the Publication Department of the General Federation of Japanese Labour and the Industrial and Labour Research Institute.

Nogaro, Bertrand and Weil, Lieut. Col. Lucien. *La main-d'œuvre étrangère et coloniale pendant la guerre.* Histoire économique et sociale de la guerre mondiale (série française). Publications de la Dotation Carnegie pour la paix internationale. Paris, Les Presses universitaires de France ; New Haven, U.S.A., Yale University Press. XII + 64 pp.

The first part of this study is devoted to colonial and Chinese labour in France during the war, sources of labour supply, conditions of recruiting and labour contracts, organisation, distribution and productivity. In the second part these questions are discussed with reference to white labour ; Mr. Nogaro also examines the pre-war position, and finally, discusses the influence which war experience has had on French immigration policy.

Northern States' Cooperative League. *Second Year Book of the Northern States' Co-operative League 1926. An Annual of Consumers' Co-operatives in the North Central States of the U.S.A.* Minneapolis, 1926. 168 pp.

North Western University. Bureau of Business Research. *The Widening Retail Market and Consumers' Buying Habits.* North Western University Business Studies. Chicago and New York, A. W. Shaw Co., 1926. VIII + 186 pp. $3.

Novotny, B. *Prirucka pro Zamestnavatele k zakonu o urazovém pojisteni v historickych zemich.* No. 4. Prague, Ustredni svaz Ceskoslovenskych Prumyslniku, 1927. 33 pp. 12 Czech crowns.

Annual publication on the system of insurance against accidents in operation in Bohemia, Moravia and Silesia, published by the Czechoslovak Manufacturers' Association.

Olivier, Lord. *The Anatomy of African Misery.* London, Leonard and Virginia Woolf, 1927. 234 pp.

The title sufficiently indicates the subject matter. It is a discussion of some phases of the white occupation of Africa and its effects on the black population. The tragic story refers more especially to British South Africa and to Kenya.

O'Rourke, L. J. *Saving Dollars and Energy by Personnel Research.* 32 pp. Reprinted from the *Journal of Personnel Research*, Vol. IV., Nos. 9 and 10, January-February 1926, pp. 351-364, and Vol. IV., No. 11, March 1926, pp. 433-450.

The Director of Personnel Research, United States Civil Service Commission, publishes the results of an investigation undertaken in the interest of the Postal Service. The first part of the pamphlet deals with the procedure of effecting improvements, and the second part shows the saving achieved by personnel research methods. Over 60,000 applicants a year are examined for the positions of post office clerk and city letter carrier.

These scientific investigations by means of tests seem to give entirely satisfactory results, which are pointed out in the pamphlet.

Pankhurst, E. Sylvia. *Delphos. The Future of International Language.* To-day and To-morrow. London, Kegan Paul, Trench, Trübner and Co. ; New York, E. P. Dutton, 1927. 95 pp. 2s. 6d.

Picard, Roger. *Le salaire en fonction des conditions économiques.* Conférence en

présence des militants de l'U.S.C.R.P. Paris, Union des syndicats confédérés de la Région parisienne, 1926. 27 pp. Fr. 0.75.

Pienviljelijäin Liitto. *VII : nen varsinaisen edustajakokouksen pytäkirja.* Laatinut E. LAMMENTAUSTA. Tampere, 1926. 47 + 47 pp.

One of the results of the rapid development of agrarian reform in Finland has been the growth of a class of small farmers and with it the institution of a number of state-aided organisations. The first of these organisations, the "Small Farmers' Union", held its seventh general meeting in 1925 ; the proceedings are recorded in the above report. Although still divided through political differences among its members, the Union, it is shown, is developing rapidly and is destined to play an increasingly important part in agrarian matters and economic life in Finland.

Pirou, Gaétan. *Georges Sorel 1848-1922.* Etudes sur le devenir social, XXII. Paris, Marcel Rivière, 1927. 67 pp. 3 frs.

The author's aim is to familiarise the reader with the work of Georges Sorel, which is often perplexing. He shows that Sorel's opinions are influenced by his career and by his temperament, which is that of a moralist. This interpretation throws light on the development of his views and the consistency of his works and helps to explain their influence. A bibliography of Sorel's works completes the volume.

Plékhanov, Georges. *Introduction à l'histoire sociale de la Russie.* Traduite du russe en français par Mme. BATAULT-PLÉKHANOV. Collection historique de l'Institut d'études slaves, No. 3. Paris, Editions Bossard, 1926. XII + 160 pp.

Reichsversicherungsanstalt für Angestellte. *Bericht des Direktoriums der Reichsversicherungsanstalt für Angestellte über das Geschäftsjahr 1925.* Berlin. 49 pp.

Remme, Dr. Karl. *Die Hochschulen Deutschlands. Ein Führer durch Geschichte, Landschaft, Studium.* Berlin, Verlag des Akademischen Auskunftsamts in der Universität, 1926. XI + 290 pp., illustr.

The author traces the history and development of German universities and gives a general idea of university training in his country. The book is a useful guide to the scientific movement and university life in Germany.

R. K. Werkliedenverbond in Nederland. *Erste Jaarboek 1925.* Utrecht. 249 + IV pp.

Year book of the Netherlands Roman Catholic Workers' Federation for 1925.

Rocenka Ceskoslovenské Republiky 1927. Prague, Dr. Ant. Hajn, 1927. XVI + 376 pp. 36 Czech crowns.

This general review for 1927 contains information on political, administrative, economic and social matters in Czechoslovakia, and includes, like former issues, an article by Mr. TELTSIK on the International Labour Organisation.

Rose, Adam. *Le problème agraire en Pologne.* Warsaw, Pomorska drukarnia rolnicza, 1926. 58 pp.

After describing the defects of the Polish agricultural system at the time of the reconstitution of the Polish State and the measures taken from 1919 to 1925 to improve it, the author considers the Agricultural Act of 28 December 1925, giving figures which show the scope of the proposed reform. Eleven tables of statistics compiled from official sources are given in the appendix.

Rudhardt, Paul. *Importance de quelques facteurs moraux (volonté, attention, activité, etc...) dans l'orientation professionnelle.* Geneva, Association suisse pour l'organisation rationnelle du travail, 1927. 16 pp.

This little study, published under the auspices of the Swiss Association for Scientific Management, is an interesting addition to the data already collected on the determination of vocational aptitudes. The author examined a number of subjects, using appropriate tests to discover the relative importance of moral factors (will, attention, etc.) and their influence on output, apart from actual aptitudes for certain occupations.

The conclusions drawn are that the constancy of a moral factor, such as will

power, makes up to a large extent for deficiency in occupational aptitude. It follows that vocational counsellors should take moral factors into account and develop the latent qualities found in the subjects they are called upon to advise.

A further study by Mr. Rudhardt is in preparation, in which his methods will be described.

Sachet, Adrien. *Traité théorique et pratique de la législation sur les accidents du travail et les maladies professionnelles.* Septième édition entièrement refondue et mise au courant de la législation et de la jurisprudence, jusqu'au mois d'avril 1926. Paris, Société anonyme du Recueil Sirey, 1926. In three volumes, VII + 639 pp., 591 pp. and 534 pp.

Salkin, Paul. *Le problème de l'évolution noire. L'Afrique centrale dans cent ans.* Preface by Maurice DELAFOSSE. Paris, Payot, 1926. 208 pp.

The author of this book, who has for many years been a high official in the Belgian Congo, gives an imaginary picture of the effects which will have been caused in a hundred years' time by the impact of white on black civilisation in Central Africa. After a period during which the whole of that region is placed under mandate to various powers by the "Association of Nations", this form of control is removed and a negro emperor is proclaimed. Although it is cast in this fanciful form, the book is, in reality, a comparative study of existing tendencies in the black populations of Central Africa.

Salmon, Armand. *La mutualité et les assurances sociales.* Paris, Jouve et Cie., 1926. 199 pp.

Sangyo Rodo Chosa-Sho. *Nihon Rodo Kumiai Undo no Gensei.* Tokyo, Kibo-Kaku.

Study on the present condition of Japanese trade unionism published by the Industrial and Labour Research Institute.

Saposs, David J. and Bertha T. *Readings in Trade Unionism. Labour Organisation Principles and Problems as discussed by Trade Unionists in their Official Publications and Writings.* The Workers' Bookshelf. New York, Doran, 1926. XXV + 451 pp.

Schanzer, Carlo. *Sulla Società delle Nazioni. Discorsi, Studi e Note.* Preface by Achille LORIA. Rome, Anonima Romana Editoriale, 1925. VII + 240 pp.

Mr. Schanzer, former Italian Minister for Foreign Affairs, Senator, and president of the Italian Institute of International Law, has brought together in this volume speeches on the League of Nations delivered by him in the Italian Chamber and Senate, at the first, second and fifth sessions of the Assembly of the League of Nations and before the Temporary Mixed Committee on Disarmament, and also articles on the League published by him in the Italian press.

In spite of its deficiencies, he writes, the League of Nations is a firmly established institution born of a great international convention. Its adversaries no longer consider its abolition. No government or country would assume the responsibility of injuring an institution designed to promote justice and international peace. The League of Nations would survive the political systems of the countries party to the treaties from which it took form. There are, therefore, excellent reasons why the different countries should co-operate in the work of the League — especially Italy, which has a permanent seat on the Council — and endeavour to frustrate any attack on its interests. But, he adds, the real friends of the League are those who endeavour to assist its gradual and prudent development. Mr. Schanzer also outlines a legal theory of the League. The League, he writes, is not a Super-State, it is not invested with special sovereign powers; it is a contractual association for the realisation of certain common aims.

Recognising the League as a diplomatic organ, Mr. Schanzer assigns to it not only the privilege of co-ordinating the international activities of its Members, but also that of directing them to higher purposes. It is not by force, he points out, or by war, or by a theoretical and abstract solidarity between peoples, that war can be abolished, but by the League of Nations working on the principle of the subordination of the individual to society, of each nation to the community of nations.

Schulz, Dr. Hermann. *Die deutsche Sozialversicherung (Kranken-, Unfall-, Invaliden- und Angestelltenversicherung).* Zweite umgearbeitete Auflage. Berlin, Franz Dahlen, 1926. VII + 190 pp. 7.50 marks.

Schweizerisches Bauernsekretariat. *Untersuchung über die Besteuerung des landwirtschaftlichen Besitzes und Einkommens und der landwirtschaftlichen Organisationen in Bund, Kantonen und Gemeinden.* Mitteilung Nr. 84. I. Teil. Brugg, 1926. 241 pp.

Results of an enquiry on the taxation of landed property and agricultural organisations in Switzerland.

Shadwell, Dr. Arthur. *The Breakdown of Socialism.* London, Ernest Benn, 1926. 272 pp.

" The success of Socialism as a political movement since the war has, by bringing it to the test of action, revealed the difficulties of realising it as an economic system, and exposed the inadequacy of previous conceptions so plainly as to compel a reconsideration of the whole problem. " Such is the conclusion drawn by Dr. Shadwell as the result of a tour of enquiry in several European countries. What he observed has already been described in a series of articles published in the *Times* during February 1926 ; it is on these articles, to which some new material has been added, that the book under consideration is based.

After an introductory chapter in which he recalls the division brought about in the socialist movement by the war, Dr. Shadwell examines the course of events in Russia, Germany, Austria, Sweden, Denmark and Czechoslovakia, where socialistic experiments of a more or less drastic nature have been attempted, either by communist methods or by constitutional means, and concludes against the feasibility of the proposed economic transformation. The pages devoted to Russia contain many references to the publications of the International Labour Office. The author devotes a special chapter to municipal socialism and condemns the methods of administration expounded. But Socialism and social reform are two very different things, he points out, and, if economic evolution has not proceeded on the lines laid down by the Marxian theory and is not tending in that direction, on the other hand, certain movements towards social improvement are gathering impetus in the economic, political and intellectual spheres. These he reviews under the headings : political democracy, social reform, industrial democracy, scientific organisation or " rationalisation " of industry, and capitalist democracy. In particular he considers the work of the International Labour Office, giving special attention to the questions of the eight-hour day and social insurance.

Dr. Shadwell foreshadows the coming of a new order in which " the value of personality, of leadership, of individual effort and initiative will receive new recognition ; but at the same time the social obligation of upholding the weak and unfortunate will be fulfilled better than before ; many doors will be opened to claims for equal rights, and class differences will gradually melt away in the warmth of increasing association and the coalescence of interests ".

Skubich, Dr. Gerhard. *Untersuchungen über den berufsschulpflichtigen Nachwuchs.* Bücherei des öffentlichen Arbeitsnachweises, Serie II, Heft 10. Stuttgart, W. Kohlhammer, 1926. 24 pp.

Contains the results of an enquiry carried out in vocational schools in Magdeburg over 1924-1925 and bearing on questions of direct interest to vocational counsellors. The chief points considered were :

(1) The part played by tradition in the choice of a career.

(2) The cases in which the son has chosen a trade different from that of his father.

(3) What general preliminary training have the pupils in vocational schools received ?

(4) What proportion of pupils in technical schools change : (*a*) their trade ; (*b*) their technical school in the course of their studies ?

(5) The question of apprenticeship of young persons from rural districts to urban trades and that of the return to the land of young urban workers.

(6) Economic factors influencing vocational guidance.

The results of the enquiry are given in a series of statistical tables followed by some brief comments.

Designed primarily for the use of vocational counsellors, this work may be considered — especially as regards the method employed — a document of general utility to all interested in workers' training.

Stubbs, Ernest. *Tightening Coils. An Essay on Segregation.* Foreword by Professor Jan H. Hofmeyr. Pretoria, Hollingtons, 1925. 26 pp. 2s.

This essay treats the native question in South Africa as the problem of how the white races are to maintain their existence against the tide of native progress. The author considers that by its present economic organisation the Union of South Africa is a slave state. The whole structure is " reared upon the labour of a class without full political and social rights " and the circulation between this and the dominant classes is impeded by colour prejudice interwoven into the legislative and social fabric of the community. The outcome of this position is the " poor white ", who in time will mix with the native, so that the slave economy will tend towards the fusion of black and white and, by reason of the overwhelming predominance of the black, to the absorption of white in black. To the author, the only solution is the creation of separate areas for the exclusive occupation of black and white, maintained severally on the basis of an all-black and an all-white economy.

So far the essay is enlightening and clear. Where it is disappointing is in its attempt to sweep aside the difficulties militating against complete segregation : land problems, the economic future of the mines, the position of the educated native, and the possibility of any native development in all-black areas.

Talbot, P. Amaury. *The Peoples of Southern Nigeria. A sketch of their History, Ethnology and Languages, with an Abstract of the 1921 Census.* Oxford University Press ; London, Humphrey Milford, 1926. 4 volumes, illustr.

These important volumes are the outcome of the author's work as officer in charge of the 1921 census of Southern Nigeria. The first volume includes some general historical notes covering the whole of the period between the negro migrations into Africa and the present day, together with an account of each Province. The succeeding volumes contain ethnological studies of the tribes, their provisional classification on a language basis and many tables showing tribal distribution according to language, religion, civil conditions, age, sex and occupations.

Tead, Ordway and Metcalf, Henry C. *Personnel Administration. Its Principles and Practice.* Second revised edition. New York and London, McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1926. xiv + 543 pp.

The authors examine succinctly, but in all their principal aspects, the various problems of personnel administration in industry : sources of labour supply, method of selection and placing, health and safety, education and technical training, methods of arousing interest in work, transfer and promotion, discipline, grievances, discharge, the measurement of labour turnover, job analysis and job specifications, rewards (elements in wage determination, payment plans and methods), insurance against accident, disease, and unemployment, inter-departmental co-ordination, and relations between employers and workers. This last question is particularly closely examined, the authors devoting some hundred pages to the following points : employee representation, the business value of collective agreements, employers' associations and personnel work, national industrial councils, and the purpose of industrial government.

Each chapter is followed by a short bibliography. The field of personnel administration, the reasons for a personnel department, its value and functions, are set forth in four introductory chapters. The appendices contain a topical outline for the use of students in plant visits and a list of current sources of information on personnel problems and personnel work.

Trotsky, L. *Towards Socialism or Capitalism ?* Translated by R. S. Townsend and Z. Vengerova, with a preface specially written by the author for the English edition. London, Methuen, 1926. 128 pp. 2s. 6d.

Truchy, Henri. *Cours d'économie politique.* Second edition revised and brought up to date. Vol. II. Paris, Recueil Sirey, 1927. 491 pp. 30 fr.

Attention was called to the 1923 edition of this treatise on political economy, volumes I and II, in the August 1924 issue of the *International Labour Review* (Vol. X, No. 2, p. 386).

After having in the first volume examined the phenomena relating to production and exchange, arguing as if the civilised world were not divided into countries, or as if each country formed an isolated economic unit, the author considered the relations between these political and economic units. International political relations, he pointed out, hold a most important place in political economy anp give rise to lively theoretical controversy.

The second volume of Mr. Truchy's work, now revised, begins at book IV, and deals first with international economic relations ; book V is devoted to the distribution of wealth (income from labour, income from capital, profits, national and private wealth) ; book VI to public finance and book VII to social questions. The third section of book VII, in which the movement towards international labour legislation is considered, describes briefly the constitution of the International Labour Organisation and the results it has achieved. An index is included.

Vienne, A. and Wauters, A. *La Réforme du réformisme ?* Brussels, L'Eglantine, 1926. 165 pp.

In the first part the authors describe the political activities of the Belgian Labour Party since the war and criticise the reformist policy ; in the second they enumerate its deficiencies and its failures and argue that the Belgian working classes should pursue a concrete object, with near prospect of attainment, and embodying in germ the socialist idea. This definite object might, they suggest, be the nationalisation of the industrial undertakings which are ripe for this reform, allied with workers' control. The authors consider that when the proletarian and the bourgeois forces are equal, political collaboration, in spite of its undeniable disadvantages, is justified and even inevitable, but that the reformist policy should be considered as a means and not as an end, and that " after having formed the lines of approach through social reforms, it is time to consider a transformation of the system, and to study attentively transitory measures in which a maximum of socialist ideas would find application and the practical needs of the moment would, at the same time, be taken into account ".

Wagner, Dr Wilhelm. *Die Chinesische Landwirtschaft.* Berlin, Parey, 1926. xv + 668 pp.

This book is mostly based on material collected by the author when he was Chief of the Agricultural Service of the German Chinese High School in Tsingtao. The bulk of the book is devoted to the technical structure of Chinese agriculture, but the social side of the agricultural question in China is not omitted.

The first part of the book gives a description of natural conditions. The second part deals with economic conditions and their influence on agricultural production. The author makes a careful estimate of the agricultural population. In his opinion, 80 per cent. of the total population of 340 millions live from agriculture ; in the most densely populated agricultural districts there are about 600 persons per square kilometre. The peasant farm predominates. In the plains these farms vary in size from 1.0 to 3.4 hectares, bigger holdings from 4 to 10 hectares, and holdings up to 50 hectares exist also. About 0.4 hectares of fertile land is considered sufficient to support a peasant family. In Southern China the holdings are still smaller, but cultivation is also more horticultural than agricultural.

In theory all land belongs to the state and the occupiers are only tenants, but as long as they pay their taxes and cultivate their land they can dispose of it freely. In this sense most peasant farmers are owners of their land, but even where land is held in large estates it is let out in small plots to tenants. Tenancy is nearly always share-tenancy with payment in kind. Some tenants are not personally free, but are, in fact, slaves.

The third, and longest, part of the book deals with the technical side of Chinese agriculture. A few remarks concerning labour can be found. The agricultural workers in China can, as elsewhere, be divided into servants usually engaged by the year, and day labourers ; the first receive only a small cash wage ; the day labourer receives both cash and wages in kind. The piece-rate system is well known in China.

Human labour plays a very big rôle in Chinese agriculture. Work which in other countries is done by animals is there carried out by human beings.

Wahrburg, Hans and Berndt, Dr. Fritz. *Verordnung über Erwerbslosenfürsorge.* Schriftenreihe " Arbeit und Beruf ". Band 3. Herausgegeben von Dr. P. Dermietzel und E. Schindler. Zweite vollkommen neu bearbeitete Auflage. Bernau bei Berlin, Grüner-Verlag, 1926. 774 pp.

One of the most comprehensive commentaries on existing German laws concerning unemployment relief yet published. The text of these laws is given in full and the author gives for each important provision a well chosen example to illustrate its application.

Wege zur Rationalisierung. Reprinted from the *Frankfürter Zeitung.* Frankfort-on-the-Main, 1927. 92 pp.

This pamphlet brings together some fifteen short articles published in the *Frankfürter Zeitung* on the " rationalisation " of industry, commerce, agriculture, etc.

Wilbrandt, Robert. *Die moderne Industrie-Arbeiterschaft. Eine Einführung in die Grundfragen der Sozialreform.* Stuttgart, E. H. Moritz (F. Mittelbrach), 1926. viii + 213 pp.

Wolf, Dr. Erik. *Die Soziologischen Grundlagen der Fürsorge und Wohlfahrtspflege.* Jena, Gustav Fischer, 1927. 39 pp.

Dr. Wolf defines his terms as follows :

Relief, in the strict sense of the word, interferes with the sociological situation of the individual only to provide economic support, and attempts as far as possible to preserve the existing sociological situation. Welfare work, in the strict sense of the word, works in the opposite direction : it raises any sociological situation which has been condemned by welfare workers and establishes through education or rehabilitation a new sociological situation for the individual in question.

Women's National Liberal Federation. Family Endowment Enquiry Committee. *Children's Allowances. Final Report.* London, 1927. 22 pp. 3d.

An account of the investigations and conclusions of the Committee of Enquiry on Family Endowment set up by the Women's National Liberal Federation in the summer of 1925. During the course of its investigations the Committee heard evidence from a number of persons who had made a special study of the subject, including a representative of the International Labour Office.

To ensure that the minimum needs of every child in the community shall be supplied without help from the poor law or from charity is, in the Committee's opinion, the fundamental object of children's allowances. These allowances, it is pointed out, far from representing a revolutionary innovation, are the logical complement of the social legislation which has been developed throughout the last century.

The Committee favours the industrial pool system for children's allowances, organised either regionally or by industry. It considers the payment of allowances by means of contributory insurance or out of state revenue to be impractical. The allowances should be paid direct to the mother and should be quite separate from the payment of wages. They should not depend in any way upon the " output " or " skill " of individual workers.

Recommendations are made to the effect that the state should introduce the system of family allowances for all its employees, and embody the principle in the " fair wage clause " of all government contracts. It could also, it is considered, take action to encourage the provision of industrial pools, particularly by offering to finance the cost of any pool started on a proper basis.

The Report includes a brief survey of schemes in existence in other countries. An appendix gives tables showing the probable effect on wages in the metal industry in Great Britain if a children's allowance scheme were adopted.

Woytinsky, W. *Die Vereinigten Staaten von Europa.* Berlin, J. H. W. Dietz Nachf., 1926. 186 pp. 4 marks.

The author discusses the proposal for a " United States of Europe ".

Wychoff, Vertrees J. *The Wage Policies of Labour Organisations in a Period of Industrial Depression.* Johns Hopkins University Studies in Historical and Political Science. Series XLIV, No. 3. Baltimore, The Johns Hopkins Press, 1926. VII + 119 pp.

Yamanaka, Atsutaro. *Nihon Rodo Kumiai Hoan Kenkyu.* Studies of Social Problems, No. 3. Tokyo, 1926.

A complete study of the origin and development of the pending legislation on trade unions in Japan. The book begins with a brief review of the origin of trade union organisation in Japan and the position of Japanese trade unions under the present legal system ; an historical account is then given of the early projects of trade union legislation, from 1920 to 1923. The bulk of the book is devoted to a minute critical study of the Trade Union Bill drafted by the Bureau of Social Affairs and that of the final text of the Bill presented by the Government to the Diet in 1925. In the appendix are found the texts of practically all important legislative projects and Bills on trade unions. Comments by leading employers' and workers' organisations and by the Japanese Association for International Labour Legislation and also a brief list of bibliographical references are included.

Zakladni Problemy Socialniho Pojostovani. Publications of the Prague Social Institute, No. 27. Prague, 1926. 127 pp.

Translation into Czech of the study on *General Problems of Social Insurance*, published by the International Labour Office (Studies and Reports, Series M, Social Insurance, No. 1, Geneva, 1925).

Zemski urad pro péci o valecné poskozence v Cechach. *Zprava o cinnosti Zemského uradu pro péci o valecné poskozence v Cechach v roce 1926.* Prague-Karlin, Socialni Sluzba. 31 pp.

Annual report of the Czechoslovak Office for the Protection of Disabled Ex-Service Men for 1926.

Zwiazek Gornikow Zjednoczenia Zawodowego Polskiego. *Sprawozdonie z III. Walnego Zebrania Zwiazku Górników Zjednoczenia Zawodowego Polskiego w Katowicach.* Katowice, 1926. 44 pp.

Report of the proceedings of the Third General Assembly of the Federation of Polish Mine Workers held at Kattowitz (Upper Silesia) on 3 October 1926. The report covers a period of three years — 1923 to 1926.

Zwiazek Rewizyjnego Spoldzielni Kolek Rolniczych w Krakowie. *VI. Sprawozdanie 1925.* Lwow, 1927. 115 p.

Report of the Auditing Union of the Agricultural Co-operative Societies in the district of Cracow for 1925.

ERRATA

1926, Vol. XIV.

No. 6, December, *Annual Holidays for Workers and Collective Agreements*, the sentence beginning on line 8, p. 818, should read as follows:

" The maximum holiday was six to twelve working days for *48.9* per cent. of the workers and employees, and over twelve days for *24.7* per cent. "

1927, Vol. XV.

No. 1, January, *Wage Rates and Retail Prices in Various Cities*, Table VI, p. 131, last column (figures for 1 Oct. 1926), last line (Warsaw): for " 52 " read *40*.

No. 2, February, *The New German Labour Protection Bill*, p. 191, the sentence beginning on line 6 of the paragraph headed " Sunday Rest " should read as follows:

" The rest period must last 24 hours, *from midnight to midnight, but may be shifted by 6 hours* in undertakings which work continuously except on Sundays. "

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